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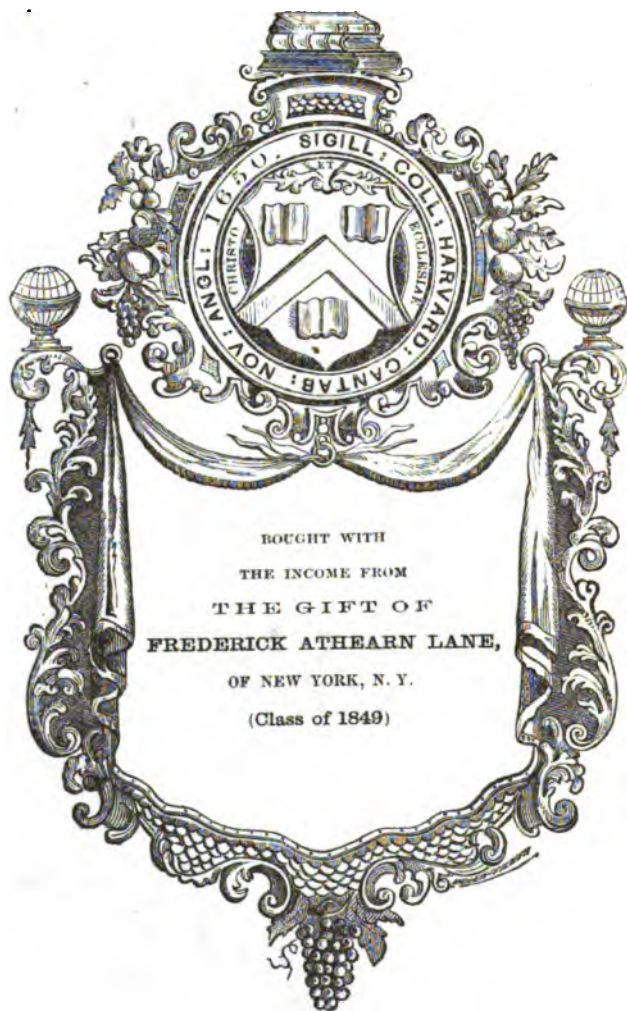
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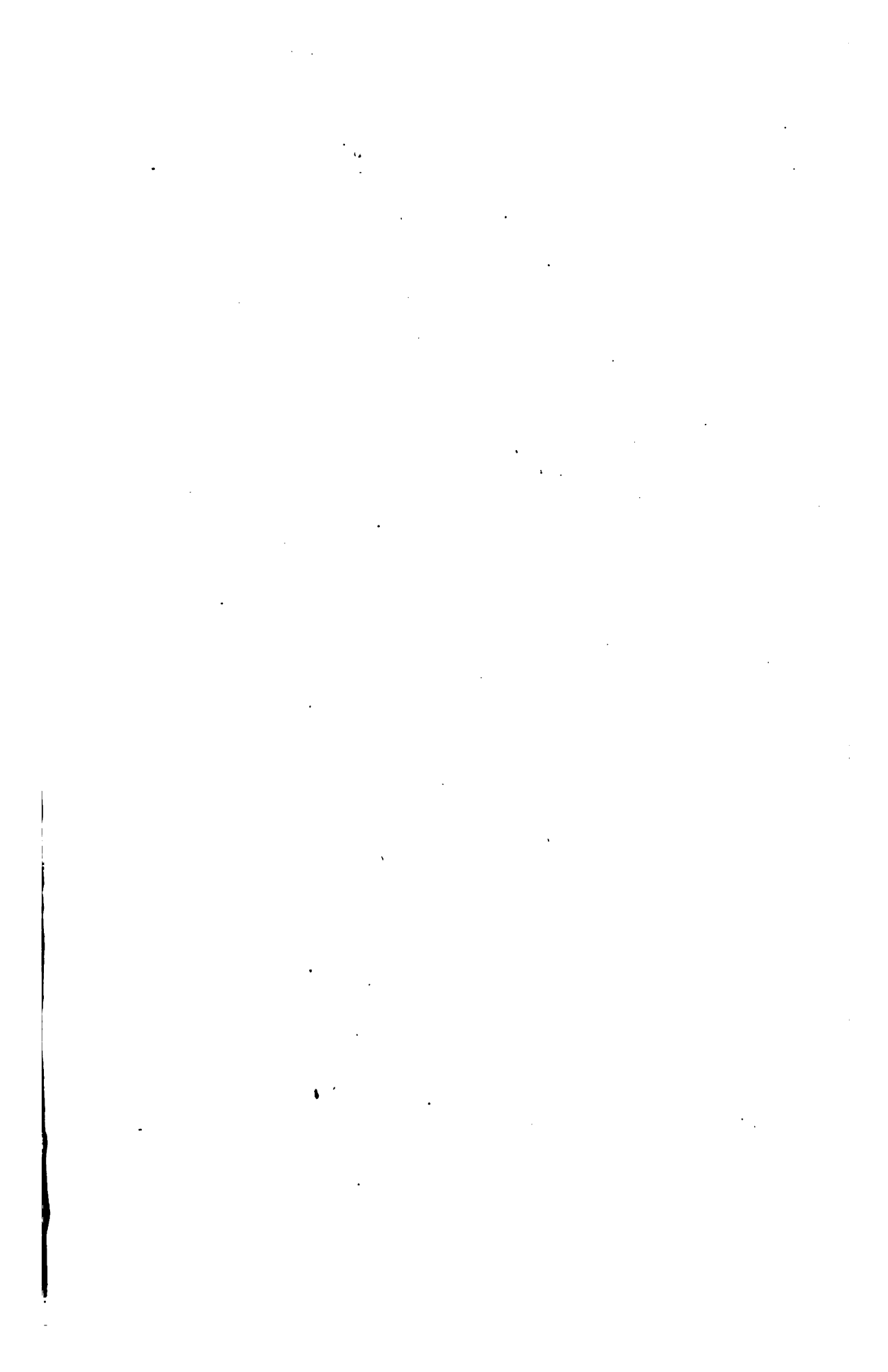
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ANNALS
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NOTICE.

THE conclusion of the Eighth Series of the "Annals of British Legislation" affords a favourable opportunity for the consideration of any measures calculated to impart increased vigour to the enterprise.

During eight years this Work has been the medium of furnishing a Digest of all the Papers presented to both Houses of Parliament from year to year; and it has thus given life and permanent utility to a vast mass of economical and political information, which was heretofore almost inaccessible and useless. Many a golden principle lies, in fact, embedded in our Parliamentary literature, but it must be extracted from the vast mass of heterogeneous materials under which it is buried.

It was anticipated at the commencement of the undertaking, that all our public institutions, such as City and Town Corporations, Chambers of Commerce, Scientific, Literary, and Mechanics' Institutions, Public Libraries, and Clubs, would welcome a work so useful for reference, and so truthfully illustrating the Annals of the Nation. It was believed that Members of both Houses of Parliament, merchants, bankers, and others, interested in the home, colonial, or foreign affairs of the country, would be glad to avail themselves of a work which provided an easy means of getting all the information on the course of legislation on any specific subject which the Blue Books themselves never furnish in a separate form. And though these expectations have not been to the full extent realized, it is gratifying to be able to state that since the commencement of the publication of the "Annals of British Legislation," ample testimony has been borne in its favour, by

private communications, reviews in the public papers, and in the recent discussion in the House of Commons, when Members of both sides of the House expressed themselves in terms of high approval both of the scope of the work, and also of the plan on which it is conducted.

It is now intended to commence a new Series, and, in doing so, some alterations will be introduced, which, it is hoped, will be found acceptable.

1. The new Series will commence with the Annals of the PRESENT session.

2. The Work will be printed in future in double columns, by which nearly a fourth more matter will be given in the one thousand pages. By this means the "Annals" will become a still more complete Work than it has hitherto been, and the Digest will, in reality, be as useful, if not more so, than the documents as given in full.

3. The classification of the Work into Series has been generally approved; but much inconvenience having been experienced from the necessity of waiting for the binding till the several volumes were completed, it has been decided to discontinue the double paging, and to make each volume complete in itself, but with the index and table of contents classified according to subjects.

4. By a more rapid publication the "Annals" will be kept *au courant* with existing Legislation, and the Digest of the Papers and Reports will be given as soon as possible after their publication.

These changes involve considerable addition to the labour and expense connected with such a publication; but it is desired to spare no effort in order to secure for the "Annals" the place it aspires to take among the permanent literature of the country.

P R E F A C E.

THE extensive importance which the Commerce of the United Kingdom has acquired within the last few years is at once the cause and the result of the great prosperity which exists among all classes of society. Whilst, on the one hand, immense wealth is thereby annually accumulated, and labour and industry obtain abundant reward; on the other, this same prosperity is itself the stimulus to large importation of foreign produce and manufactures, and an incentive to the unlimited development of our productive power. Illustrations of this may be seen in the returns of the consumption of sugar, and in the statement of the trade and navigation of the Empire, given under Series A, Finance, Commerce, &c., of this volume of the Annals. The consumption of sugar in the United Kingdom is probably the best index we have of the measure of comforts possessed by all classes, and it will be observed that whilst in 1820 such consumption was only 18 lbs. per head, the same has now increased to more than 35 lbs. per head. Side by side with this we have in the Board of Trade Accounts the enormous development of our trade. Since 1832, the imports and exports of the country have nearly quadrupled; and in 1862 the imports amounted to 226,000,000*l.*, and the exports to 166,000,000*l.* The mode of taxing raw sugar has of late attracted

much attention. For many years a graduated scale of sugar duties has been in force having relation to the quality of sugar, and the quantity of its saccharine matter. Objection has been, however, made to this scale on account of the difficulty of justly rating qualities divided by imperceptible gradations, and of the disadvantage accruing from it to such sugar colonies as have the means of refining or purifying the sugar before sending it to this country. But since a uniform duty would have admitted the purest raw and even the refined sugar at the same rate as sugar containing a large percentage of molasses and other wasteful matter, and would have otherwise proved most disadvantageous, if not decidedly unjust to our refiners, it was resolved to adhere to a modified graduated scale. The Financial Accounts of the United Kingdom present many points of great interest. There we see the total amount of Revenue, with the proportion of expense incurred in the collection of each branch, and the expenditure in all its details. The Annuities to the Royal Family, and the pensions for Military, Naval, and Civil Services, are given in full; and so the salaries of Ambassadors and of the officers of Courts of Justice. The actual state of the Public Debt, on the 31st March, 1862, is also given, amounting in all to 784,252,338*l.* 9*s.* 11*d.* The Report of the Council of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales upon the Duchy of Cornwall will be found interesting. And of great value are the reports of the Secretaries of Embassies on the commerce of different countries. Useful returns are published on the Coinage for the last ten years. We have the usual report of the Patent Law Commissioners; a report of the Commissioners on the Salmon Fisheries; and a most interesting report on the International Exhibition. Everything in that great undertaking was on a large scale, and it is gratifying to find that, notwithstanding those

most unfortunate events which threw such a gloom over the whole country, viz., the death of the Illustrious Prince Consort, and the war in America, as many as 6,200,000 persons visited the Palace in the six months it was open. The report on Trade Marks well deserves careful attention.

Under Series B, that of Diplomacy and War, considerable correspondence is inserted on the affairs of Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig, preparatory to the crisis of actual war. The Slave Trade correspondence contains the remarkable fact that the Confederate States of America have passed an Act abolishing the Slave Trade, and prohibiting the import of Slaves. Some short papers are inserted on Italian Affairs, and on the alleged help given in Rome to brigandage. The Syrian Affairs are the topics of a large volume of correspondence; and a glance at the Affairs of Poland is afforded by the reprinting of a correspondence on the subject with Prince Talleyrand in 1831. Three Treaties are inserted in this volume; one with the Republic of Salvador and two with Belgium. We call special attention to the document issued by the Comptroller of the Navy, on the relative advantages of Iron and Wood, and the relative cost of those materials in the construction of Ships for her Majesty's Navy. And lastly, full of information are the papers relating to Foreign Affairs laid before the Congress of the United States, on the opening of the Session of 1861, upon the commencement of the great insurrection, and they well deserve our readers' attention.

In connection with Series C, Ecclesiastical Affairs and Education, we have the usual reports of the Civil Service Commissioners; of the Science and Art Department; and of the Commissioners of Tithes and Church Estates, with a batch of Bills of an

Ecclesiastical character of an exceedingly controversial nature which did not pass into law.

Under Series D, Railway, Shipping, and Postal Communication, there will be found a most valuable return, relating to Railway Companies, giving the traffic, capital, expenditure, and other information respecting the most important companies. Also a report of the Liverpool Compass Committee and other papers.

Series E, Justice and Crime, has the report on Military Prisons.

The Colonial Series contains an abstract of the Statistical Tables exhibiting at a glance the economical state of each Colony and Dependency, and of India in particular, including papers on Indian Finance, and on the claims presented in Oude. Some reports are also inserted on the disturbances in New Zealand and on the Gold Fields of Victoria.

The most prominent paper under Series G, Population, Parliamentary, and Municipal Affairs, is the report of the Commissioners on the Embankment of the Thames; and under Series H, Health and Miscellaneous, we have several papers on Lunatic Asylums. These papers, with an Abstract of the Statutes of the Realm, form the substance of another volume of the Annals now presented to our readers, and we trust that the extensive usefulness of such documents, and the correctness of statement which marks such official reports and papers, will always secure for the Annals a favourable reception.

LEONE LEVI.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

Series A.

FINANCE, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURE.

	SERIES Page	VOLUME Page
Report of Committee on Trade Marks Bill	245	1
Report of Committee on Sugar Duties	258	14
Report on Sugar Refining in Bond	278	29
Consumption of Sugar, 1801-1861	278	34
Accounts of the Exchequer	284	40
Return of Sugar and Molasses used in Brewing and Distilling	284	40
Accounts of the Board of Trade	285	109
Public Income and Expenditure	296	120
Memorial on Treasure-Trove	299	123
Reports of Secretaries of Embassies on the Commerce of different Countries	301	253
Return of Gold Coinage Tendered and Rejected	335	287
Account of Gold, Silver, and Copper Monies Coined	336	288
Account of Sardinian Loan	338	290
Account of Annuities for Lives and for Terms of Years granted	338	290
Return of Fire Insurance Duty	339	291
Finance Accounts of the United Kingdom	341	317
Returns relative to Public Expenditure	350	326
Report on the Duchy of Cornwall	351	327
Report of Patent Law Commissioners	365	373
Report of Salmon Commissioners	368	376
Report of the Commissioners of the Exhibition of 1862	385	393
Public General Statutes	417	453

Series B.

DIPLOMACY AND WAR.

Correspondence on the Slave Trade	297	41
Correspondence with British Ministers on the Slave Trade	305	49
Correspondence on the Affairs of Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig	314	58
Correspondence on the Affairs of Southern Italy	362	106
Correspondence on the Affairs of Syria	365	225
Accession of the Duke of Hesse to the Convention for the Establishment of International Copyright	387	247
Correspondence respecting Poland	389	249
Papers on the Arrest of Count Teleki	390	250
Number of Army Effectives	392	252
Treaty between Great Britain and the Republic of Salvador	393	341
Convention with Belgium	398	346
Treaty of Commerce with Belgium	399	347
Report of Defence Commissioners	404	352
Relative Advantages of Iron and Wooden Ships of War	406	354
Papers on the Foreign Relations of the United States	409	425
Papers on Brigandage in Italy	432	448
Public General Statutes	435	451

Series C.

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

	Series Page	Volume Page
Report of Ecclesiastical Commissioners	461	125
Bills which did not pass into Law.....	464	128
Report of Civil Service Commissioners	481	361
Report of the Science and Art Department.....	485	365
Report of Tithe Commissioners.....	493	485
Report of Church Estates' Commissioners	493	485
Report on Ecclesiastical Dilapidations Bill	494	486
Report of Durham University Commission	494	486
Public General Statutes	500	491

Series D.

RAILWAYS, SHIPPING, AND POSTAL COMMUNICATION.

Traffic Returns by Railway Companies	329	209
Report of the Liverpool Compass Committee	332	212
Return of Money received on account of Unclaimed Wreck.....	341	221
Number and Tonnage of Vessels in Foreign and Coasting Trade	342	222
Report on the East Gloucestershire Railway Bill	344	224
Effect of Railways on the Royal Observatory.....	345	469
Public General Statutes	348	472

Series E.

LAW, JUSTICE, AND CRIME.

Report on Military Prisons	325	477
Public General Statutes	330	482

Series F.

BRITISH INDIA, COLONIES, AND DEPENDENCIES.

Papers on the Disturbances in New Zealand	461	145
Memorandum on Indian Finance	478	162
Papers on the Affairs of British Columbia	485	197
Letter on Claims against the State of Oude	491	207
Statistical Tables of British Colonies and Possessions	497	301
Despatch on the Condition of the Gold Fields in Victoria	515	311

Series G.

POPULATION, MUNICIPAL, AND PARLIAMENTARY.

Report of Board of Public Works.....	349	169
Report of Commission on Thames Embankment	353	173
Report on the Progress of the Ordnance Survey.....	361	181
Returns by Trustees of Charitable Trusts	373	193
Report on the Local Government Act	375	195
Report of Commissioners of Charitable Donations.....	376	196
Report of Poor-Law Commissioners, Ireland	377	357
Number of Births, Marriages, and Deaths—England	380	360

Series H.

HEALTH AND MISCELLANEOUS.

Report on Lunatic Asylums—Ireland	169	293
Report of Copyhold Commissioners	175	299
Report on Dublin Hospitals	176	300
Report of Inclosure Commissioners	176	300

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Accounts relating to Trade	1
Public Income and Expenditure.....	7
First Report of Decimal Coinage Commissioners	9
Russian Dutch Loan	34
Greek Loan	34
Sardinian Loan	34
Exchequer Bills	34
Bullion purchased and sold	35
Savings Banks	35
Naval Receipts and Expenditure	35
National Debt	36
Population and Revenue	36
Additions to the Public Debt	36
Amount of the Public Debt	37
Report of Commissioners of Patents	37
Houses and Carriage Duties	38
Bills	38
Annual Statement of Trade and Navigation	41
Statistical Abstract of the United Kingdom	45
Account of Licensed Trades	47
Account of the Duchy of Cornwall	48
Revenue and Expenditure, Ireland	48
Accounts of Savings Banks	49
Accounts of Income Tax	49
Report of Commissioners of Inland Revenue	50
Report of Commissioners of Customs	53
Report on Navy Estimates	54
Additions and Reductions of Taxes	58
Quantities of Corn and Grain imported	64
Hop Duties	64
History of the National Debt	65
Expenditure on Public Parks	92
Correspondence on Agricultural Statistics	93
Report of Bleaching and Dyeing Works	94
Account of Coinage	95
Return of Paper Duty	96
Board of Trade Accounts	97
Articles charged with Excise Duties	103
Gross Amount of Customs Duties	104
Report on Clothing Depots	105
Gold and Silver imported and exported	132
Report on the Vine Disease	133
Quantity of Malt made in the United Kingdom	140
Return of Hops imported and exported	141
Monetary Convention of German States	141
Return of Joint Stock Companies	158
Return of Sugar imported and exported	159
Sugar Refined and Unrefined imported	160
Agricultural Statistics of Ireland	161
Report on Dockyard Economy	165
Papers on Factory Regulation Acts	174
Return of Property assessed to Income Tax	176
SERIES A.—VOL. II.	

	PAGE
Quantity of Spirits consumed in England and Scotland	177
Relation of Property and Income Tax to Population and Representation	178
Return of Savings Banks	178
Return of Customs, Warehousing, and Deficiencies	180
Statistical Tables of Foreign Countries	181
Authorized Issues and Circulation of Notes	185
Resolution on Decimal Coinage	186
Report on Coal Mines	186
Report on Friendly Societies	187
Public Income and Expenditure	196
Account of the Exchequer	200
Return of Newspaper Stamps	200
Public General Statute	201
Bills	218
Report on Tax Bills	217
Exports to France	240
Revenue of Ireland	240
Consumption of Cinnamon, Pepper, &c.	241
Public Income and Expenditure	242
Cotton imported	243
Account of Greek Loan	244
Account of Russian Dutch Loan	244
Account of Sardinian Loan	244
Report on Salmon Fisheries	245
Rates of Duties on Sugar	259
Number of Acres under Cultivation for Hops	260
Quantity of Coals shipped	261
Sugar and Molasses used in Brewing and Distilling	261
Board of Trade Accounts	262
Statistical Abstract of the United Kingdom	271
Designation of Parliamentary Securities	277
Report on the Repeal of the Paper Duty	277
Annual Accounts of Exchequer Bills	280
Applications by the Treasury to the Bank of England	280
Report of Inland Revenue Commissioners	281
Report of Commissioners on Customs	289
Report on Property assessed to Income Tax	299
Public Income and Expenditure	300
Property assessed to Income Tax, and Duty imposed upon it, 1843-61	304
Sinking Fund and Budgets	305
Accounts of the Duchy of Lancaster	308
Amount of Donations and Bequests for National Debt	308
Account of Savings Banks	308
Quantity of Paper charged with Duty	309
Board of Trade Accounts	312
Report on Patent Laws	321
Observations on Agricultural Statistics	325
Return of Local Taxation	328
Report on Miscellaneous Expenditure	329
Report on Mortality of Government Life Annuityants	336
Quantity of Sugar imported and consumed, 1800-1859	353
Quantity of Foreign Sugar consumed	356
Amount of Revenue from Customs, Excise, Stamps, and Taxes, 1816-1858	356
Capital of Savings Banks, 1817-1859	358
Changes of Tariffs of Foreign Countries	358
Capital of Friendly Societies	360
Public General Statutes	361

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Report of Commissioners on the Manning of the Navy	1
Treaty of Commerce with Russia	23
Convention on the Organization of Moldavia and Wallachia	29
Correspondence with the United States on the Right of Visit	35
Return of the Number of Men who have deserted from the Army	38
Correspondence on the Duchies of Central Italy	38
Despatch on the Neutrality of Parma	39
Bills	40
Report on the Militia of the United Kingdom.....	41
Papers relating to Foreign Service Messengers	51
Report on the Health of Foot Guards	52
Amount of Unclaimed Army Prize Money	53
Sum expended at Enfield Factory	53
Treaties between Austria and the Italian States	53
Number of Seamen and Ships of War, 1756 and 1859	55
Number of British Army at Home, in the Colonies, and India, 1800—1858.....	58
Charges for the Army Regimental Establishments	59
Number of Steam Ships added to the Navy	60
Number of Ships employed for the Suppression of the Slave Trade	60
Number of General Officers holding Staff Appointments	60
Correspondence on the Special Mission to China and Japan	61
Correspondence on the Charles et Georges	102
Correspondence relating to the Slave Trade	106
Report on Commissariat Department	128
Report on the Revision of Consular Fees	133
Correspondence on Italian Affairs	141
Royal Warrant on Commissariat	176
Treaties of Guarantee	178
H. M. S. Resolute	181
Number of Ships not in Active Service	182
Return of Small Arms	183
Number of Men voted for the Navy	183
Expense of refitting Ships	184
Despatch on Ship Canal	184
Public General Statutes	185
Correspondence on Italian Affairs	189
Treaty between Austria and France for the Cession of Lombardy	206
Correspondence on the Treaty of Commerce with France	215
Treaty of Commerce with France	223
Report on Military Organization	227
Supplemental Treaty of Commerce with France	256
Convention on Joint Captures in China	259
Convention with Guatemala	263
Bills	265
Report on the Defences of the United Kingdom	266
Correspondence on Italian Affairs	287
Correspondence on Trade with Japan	296
State of Japan	299
Number of Men in all Ranks of the Army	300
Despatches of British Consuls on the Disturbances in Syria	301
Papers relating to the Disturbances in Syria	314
Treaty with the Republic of Honduras	344

	PAGE
Treaty with the Republic of Nicaragua	346
Further Papers on Italian Affairs	349
Correspondence on the Annexation of Savoy	353
Correspondence relating to Italy, Savoy, and Switzerland	357
Further Correspondence relative to the Affairs of Italy.....	371
Correspondence respecting the Affairs of Naples	400
Correspondence respecting the Landing of Garibaldi in Sicily	405
Correspondence relative to the Affairs of Italy	408
Correspondence respecting Central America	417
Treaty relative to the Mosquito Indians	426
Protocols on the Disturbances in Syria	430
Correspondence relative to the Spanish Occupation of Tangier	431
Correspondence respecting the Island of San Juan	432
Convention with the Emperor of the French respecting Coolie Emigration	433
Despatches relative to the Military and Naval Expedition to the Two Sicilies	436
Correspondence respecting the Reception of Political Refugees on board H.M.'s Ships of War	438
French Decree granting Relaxations in the Treaty of Navigation of 1826.....	437
Memorandum on Military Expenditure	438
Return relative to the Cost of Militia Artillery	440
Return of Officers in Active Employment	440
Correspondence with the British Minister in Japan	441
Correspondence relative to the Affairs of China	461
Expenses incurred on Account of Disembodied Militia Volunteers	464
Reports and Correspondence on the Slave Trade	465
Return of Treaties of Commerce in Force	476
Report on Greenwich Hospital	478
Public General Statutes	491
Convention for the Pacification of Syria	493
Convention relative to the Emigration of Labourers from India to French Colonies	495
Convention prolonging the Occupation of Syria	501
Treaty of International Copyright with Sardinia	501
Convention with the Argentine Confederation	505
Return of Floggings in the Navy	508
Reports of British Consuls on the Condition of Christians in Turkey	509
Correspondence on Christianity in China.....	516
Correspondence on China	518
Correspondence on the Case of the Fugitive Slave Anderson	527
Treaty of Commerce with the Porte	534
Correspondence on Italian Affairs	540

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Report of Church Estate Commissioners	1
Report of Tithe Commissioners	2
Correspondence on Vernon and Turner Galleries	2
Income from Episcopal and Capitular Property	3
Cost of Commission on Endowed Schools, Ireland	5
Report of Ecclesiastical Commissioners	5
Bills	7
Report of Committee of Council on Education	9
Report of Science and Art Department	20
Report of Civil Service Commissioners	25
Report of Commissioners on Aberdeen Universities	40
Return of Officers of Ecclesiastical Courts	50
Church Rates, Receipts and Expenditure	51
Papers on the Excavations at Budrum	53
Report on the National Portrait Gallery	62
Report on Queen's College, Belfast	64
Report on Queen's College, Galway	65
Report on Queen's College, Cork	66
Number of Students in the Queen's University	66
Public General Statutes	67
Bills	69
Number of Visitors to Kensington Museum	72
Income and Expenditure of British Museum	72
Communications on the want of Space in the British Museum	73
Number of Graduates in the Universities	77
Occasions and Dates for Special Services by Royal Proclamation	77
Report of Church Estates Commissioners	78
Amount expended on the British Museum	78
Amount of Annuity Tax, Edinburgh	79
Report of Bible Board, Scotland	80
Pictures purchased for the National Gallery by Sir Charles Eastlake	85
Pictures purchased for the National Gallery from the Commencement	85
Correspondence on the Soulages Collection	86
Salaries of Ecclesiastical Commissioners	87
Report of Tithe Commissioners	88
The Educational Code	89
Report on Maynooth College	116
Report of Ecclesiastical Commissioners	118
Return of Reformatory Schools	120
Report of Committee of Council on Education	121
Report on Queen's College, Cork	130
Report on the opening of Public Institutions in the Evening	133
Memorial on Local Claims of the Diocese of Durham	143
Report of Science and Art Department	145

	PAGE
Report of Council of Military Education	153
Salaries of Officers in the British Museum and other Institutions	167
Sums expended for Scientific and Educational Purposes	168
Number of Visitors to Kensington Museum	168
Report of Commissioners on the Fine Arts	169
Report on Turner's Pictures	176
Public General Statutes	178
Report of Commissioners on Popular Education	181
Report of Assistant Commissioners on the State of Popular Education	345
Minutes of Evidence on Popular Education	394
Report of Civil Service Commissioners	397
Report of Committee of Council on Education	403
Report on Dissenters' Schools	406
Report of Tithe Commissioners	411
Report on Queen's College, Galway	412
Report on Queen's College, Belfast	415
Report on Queen's College, Cork	416
Report on National Education in Ireland	418
Report on Lighting the British Museum with Gas	421
Report of Church Estates Commissioners	422
Public General Statutes	423
Report of Committee of Council on Education	425
Report on Army Schools	446
Report of Civil Service Commission	449
Memorial on National Education, Ireland	453
Letter on the said Memorial	455
Income of Theological Professors, Belfast	455
Regulations for Religious Instruction of Roman Catholic Pauper Children	457
Report on Queen's College, Belfast	458
Report of Ecclesiastical Commissioners	461
Bills which did not pass into Law	464
Report of Civil Service Commissioners	481
Report of Science and Art Department	485
Report of Tithe Commissioners	493
Report of Church Estates Commissioners.....	493
Report on Ecclesiastical Dilapidations Bill ..	494
Report of the Durham University Commission	494
Public General Statutes	500

ANNALS
OF
BRITISH LEGISLATION:

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SERIES D.—VOL. II.

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M.DCCC.LXV.

LONDON:
PRINTED BY SMITH, ELDER AND CO.,
OLD BAILEY, E.C.

CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Report on Railways	1
Report of Commissioners on Harbours of Refuge	7
Bills	32
Vessels employed in the Foreign Trade	33
Address from Shipowners to the Queen	35
Return of Wrecks and Casualties	41
Number and Tonnage of Ships registered	44
Tonnage entered in the Port of London, and Number of Pilots, in 1750, 1800, and 1857	45
Report on the Post Office	45
Report on Public Roads	46
Supplementary Correspondence with Shipowners	66
Number of Railway Accidents	69
Amount paid to Corporations on Account of Foreign Shipping	70
Number of Stage Carriages licensed	70
Number of Railway Accidents	71
Account of Mercantile Marine Fund	71
Amount of Passing Tolls	72
Amount of Light Dues received	73
Vessels and Tonnage of Principal Ports	74
Postage of Letters between Liverpool and Canada	74
Number of Emigrants sent through the Emigration Commissioners	74
Account of Highways	75
Accounts of Turnpike Trusts	76
Earnings of Trinity House Pilots	76
Expenditure for the Port of Dublin	76
Vessels employed in the Foreign Trade	77
Number of Railway Passengers	78
Statistics of Railways, Electric Telegraphs, Wrecks, &c.	80
Correspondence on Telegraphic Communication with India	85
Report on Packets and Telegraph Contracts	109
Report on Railway and Canal Legislation	115
Report on Railway Accidents	117
Account of Merchant Seamen's Fund	138
Report on Turnpike Trusts	139
Return of Amount of Light Dues	140
Sums paid to Corporations for Compensation for Foreign Vessels	140
Evidence on Locomotive Bill	141
Public General Statutes	143
Report of Committee on Merchant Shipping	145
Report on the Post Office	185
Vessels employed in the Foreign Trade	195
Report on Wrecks and Casualties	185
Vessels and Tonnage entered and cleared at Principal Ports	188

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CONTENTS OF VOLUME

- ... in the French ...
- ... owners ...
- ... and Casualties ...
- ... of Ships ...
- ... in the Port ...
- ... Office ...
- ... Leads ...
- ... Correspondence ...
- ... Accidents ...
- ... Operations ...
- ... Arranges ...
- ... Accidents ...
- ... Marine ...
- ... Trails ...
- ... receives ...
- ... of ...
- ... between ...
- ... sent ...
- ... Trans ...
- ... House ...
- ... Port of ...
- ... the ...
- ... Passengers ...
- ... Electric ...
- ... Telegraphic ...
- ... and Telegram ...
- ... and Canal ...
- ... Accidents ...
-
-
- ... Light Dues ...
- ... for Compensation ...
- ... Bill ...
- ... Merchant Shipping ...
- ... Office ...
- ... Foreign Trade ...
- ... Casualties ...
- ... entered and cleared ...
- ... II

	PAGE
Reports of Commissioners on Lights, Buoys, and Beacons	189
Number of Foreign Seamen and Apprentices employed	224
Account of Contracts for the Packet Service	225
Public General Statutes	226
Report on the Post Office	229
Report on Packet and Telegraph Contracts	236
Number and Tonnage of Shipping registered	242
Salaries of Post Office Officials	244
Vessels and Tonnage of Principal Ports	244
Report on Telegraph Cables	245
Report of Emigration Commissioners	287
Shipping Returns for 1861	291
Report on Railway and Canal Bills	293
Public General Statutes	295
Report of the Meteorological Department	297
Report of Emigration Commissioners	313
Report on Wrecks and Casualties	319
Report on the Post Office	323
Traffic Return by Railway Companies	329
Report of the Liverpool Compass Committee	332
Money received on Account of Unclaimed Wreck	341
Number and Tonnage of Vessels employed in the Foreign and Country Trade	342
Report of Committee on East Gloucestershire Railway Bill	344
Effect of Railways on the Royal Observatory	345
Public General Statutes	348

ANNALS
OF
BRITISH LEGISLATION:

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SERIES E.—VOL. II.

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M.DCCC.LXV.

	PAGE
Reports of Commissioners on Lights, Buoys, and Beacons	189
Number of Foreign Seamen and Apprentices employed	224
Account of Contracts for the Packet Service	225
Public General Statutes	226
Report on the Post Office	229
Report on Packet and Telegraph Contracts	236
Number and Tonnage of Shipping registered	242
Salaries of Post Office Officials	244
Vessels and Tonnage of Principal Ports	244
Report on Telegraph Cables	245
Report of Emigration Commissioners	287
Shipping Returns for 1861	291
Report on Railway and Canal Bills	293
Public General Statutes	295
Report of the Meteorological Department	297
Report of Emigration Commissioners	313
Report on Wrecks and Casualties	319
Report on the Post Office	323
Traffic Return by Railway Companies	329
Report of the Liverpool Compass Committee	332
Money received on Account of Unclaimed Wreck	341
Number and Tonnage of Vessels employed in the Foreign and Country Trade	342
Report of Committee on East Gloucestershire Railway Bill	344
Effect of Railways on the Royal Observatory	345
Public General Statutes	348

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	PAGE
Reports of Commissioners on Lights, Buoys, and Beacons	189
Number of Foreign Seamen and Apprentices employed	224
Account of Contracts for the Packet Service	225
Public General Statutes	226
Report on the Post Office	229
Report on Packet and Telegraph Contracts	236
Number and Tonnage of Shipping registered	242
Salaries of Post Office Officials	244
Vessels and Tonnage of Principal Ports	244
Report on Telegraph Cables	245
Report of Emigration Commissioners	287
Shipping Returns for 1861	291
Report on Railway and Canal Bills	293
Public General Statutes	295
Report of the Meteorological Department	297
Report of Emigration Commissioners	313
Report on Wrecks and Casualties	319
Report on the Post Office	323
Traffic Return by Railway Companies	329
Report of the Liverpool Compass Committee	332
Money received on Account of Unclaimed Wreck	341
Number and Tonnage of Vessels employed in the Foreign and Country Trade	342
Report of Committee on East Gloucestershire Railway Bill	344
Effect of Railways on the Royal Observatory	345
Public General Statutes	348

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	PAGE
Reports of Commissioners on Lights, Buoys, and Beacons	189
Number of Foreign Seamen and Apprentices employed	224
Account of Contracts for the Packet Service	225
Public General Statutes	226
Report on the Post Office	229
Report on Packet and Telegraph Contracts	236
Number and Tonnage of Shipping registered	242
Salaries of Post Office Officials	244
Vessels and Tonnage of Principal Ports	244
Report on Telegraph Cables	245
Report of Emigration Commissioners	287
Shipping Returns for 1861	291
Report on Railway and Canal Bills	293
Public General Statutes	295
Report of the Meteorological Department	297
Report of Emigration Commissioners	313
Report on Wrecks and Casualties	319
Report on the Post Office	323
Traffic Return by Railway Companies	329
Report of the Liverpool Compass Committee	332
Money received on Account of Unclaimed Wreck	341
Number and Tonnage of Vessels employed in the Foreign and Country Trade	342
Report of Committee on East Gloucestershire Railway Bill	344
Effect of Railways on the Royal Observatory	345
Public General Statutes	348

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M.DCCC.LXV.

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Report on Judicial Statistics	1
Number of Private Bills introduced in 1859	21
Number of applications to the Insolvency Courts	27
Number of Indictments for Perjury	28
Number of Petitions for Dissolution of Marriage	28
Number of Causes in the Divorce Court	28
Bills	29
Number of Constabulary and Revenue Police in Ireland	33
Accounts of the Metropolitan Police	33
Number of persons confined for offences against the Game Laws	33
Salaries of Recorders	33
Judicial Statistics for Scotland	34
Judicial Statistics for Ireland	34
Report on Penal Servitude	37
Report on Convict Prisons	38
Returns of Drunkenness in Scotland	41
Report on the Cost of Prosecutions	41
Return of amount of Magistrates' Clerks' fees	51
Returns relating to the Court of Chancery	51
Return respecting Crime and Outrage Act, Ireland	52
Returns relating to County Courts	52
Statistics of Crimes and Criminals	53
Correspondence on Convict Discipline	57
Report on Chancery Offices	61
Report on Prisons, Scotland	64
Report on Prisons, Ireland	67
Report on Convict Prisons, Ireland	71
Public General Statutes	73
Report on Convict Prisons	89
Bills.....	97
Report of Bastardy Cases	102
Return of Causes tried at York Assizes	103
Salaries of Officers of the Courts of Probate	104
Report of Commissioners on Evidence in Chancery	105
Report of Commissioners on New Buildings for Law and Equity Courts	110
Report of Commissioners on the Laws of Jersey	140
Number of Casualties in the Metropolis reported to the Police	153
Revenue of Court of Probate and Divorce	154
Number of Plaints entered in the County Courts	154
Number of Accountants in Bankruptcy	154
Number of Prisoners for Contempt of Court	155
Report of International Statistical Congress on Judicial Statistics	157
Report on Transfers on Burdens and Real Property	172
Report of Commissioners on Process and Practice of Pleading	176

	PAGE
Bankruptcy Returns	189
Abstract of Fines and Penalties, Ireland	190
Public General Statutes	191
Report on Judicial Statistics, England and Wales	197
Arrangements for the Printing of Acts of Parliaments	227
Report on Military Prisons	228
Return of number of Prisoners in 1861	229
Return on Divorce and Matrimonial Causes	229
Number of Criminal Offenders in Scotland	230
Number of Persons committed to Bail in Ireland	231
Report of Committee on Laws relating to Coroners	233
Report on Convict Prisons	237
Return of Petitions for Divorce Bills.....	262
Return of Stamp Duties on Probates	264
Return of Revenue and Expenditure of the Court of Bankruptcy	264
Report on certified Reformatory Schools	265
Public General Statutes	267
Report on Judicial Statistics, Police and Criminal, England and Wales	273
Report on Judicial Statistics, Civil Branch, England and Wales.....	285
Report on Convict Prisons	290
Report of Committee on Baron de Bode's Petition	300
Report on Convict Prisons, Ireland	309
Memorial on the Subject of the Game Laws	312
Criminal Tables for Ireland	313
Report on Prisons, Ireland	318
Report on Prisons, Scotland	322
Report on Military Prisons	325
Public General Statutes	330

ANNALS
OF
BRITISH LEGISLATION:

BEING
A CLASSIFIED AND ANALYSED SUMMARY OF PUBLIC BILLS, STATUTES,
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SERIES F.—VOL. II.
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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Report on Colonization and Settlement in India	1
Correspondence on East India Roads	34
Return of the Titles of Land, Bombay	36
Despatch on the Social Condition of the Rural Population in Bengal	38
Letter respecting the Assumption of Government of Oude	39
Petition of Hindoos in Bengal, &c.	40
Letter on Education in India	42
Bills	44
Report on the State of the Colonies	45
Administration of Justice in India	60
Papers on British North American Explorations	61
Correspondence on Emigration from China to the West Indies	71
Papers relative to the Hudson's Bay Company	73
Return of Gold Coinage, Sydney	74
Statement of guaranteed Colonial Loans	74
Cost of British Colonies	75
Despatch on Colonial Defences	76
New Indian Tariff	77
Correspondence on the Discovery of Gold in Fraser River	79
Home Accounts of the Government of India	80
Indian Revenue and Disbursements	81
Notifications concerning the East India Public Debt	83
Correspondence on the Running of Sunday Trains in India	84
Correspondence with the Hudson's Bay Company	86
Ordinance on Education in Mauritius	87
Report on Yellow Fever in Bermuda	88
Jamaica Immigration Act	89
Trade of India and China	90
Canada Act on Decimal Coinage	91
Correspondence on the Treaty of 1837 with the King of Oude	93
Correspondence on a Federal Association of the Australian Colonies	97
Registration Tax in British Guiana	97
Trial of a Baker in Hong Kong	98
Report on Hong Kong and Chusan	98
Correspondence on Education in India	101
Report of Emigration Commissioners	103
Papers on Immigration to the West Indies	113
Correspondence on the same	123
East India Works Loans, &c.	134
East India Expenditure	135
Education in the East Indies	136
East Indies Public Works	136
Report on Indian Army	137
Return of East India Loans	138
Despatch on Indian Finance	153
Papers relating to British Columbia	159
Immigration of Coolies	165
Resignation of Sir P. Maitland	166
State of Labour in the East India Colonies	169
Public Debt of India	175
Strength of the East Indian Army	177
Indian Revenue	177
Public General Statutes	178

	PAGE
Report on Military Defences of Colonies	181
Sums paid for Hindoo Shrines	193
Correspondence on Hindoo Temples	195
Report on Amalgamation of the Supreme and the Sudder Court, Madras	197
Return of Military Police and Revenue in India	200
Proceedings on the Trial of the King of Delhi	202
Correspondence on Paper Currency in India	205
East India Financial Measures	231
Return of Number of Banks in India	245
Account of Public Debt of India	246
Account of Capital raised by Railway Companies in India	247
Baptisms at Umritsur	248
Report on Railways in India	249
Papers relative to the Affairs of New Zea and	271
Report on the State of the Colonies	298
Statistical Tables relating to the Colonies	298
Papers on the Organization of European Forces in India	320
Return of Land available for Settlement and Cultivation in India	344
Return of Cost of Collecting the Indian Revenue	351
Return of the Terms on which Indian Loans have been Negotiated	352
Delhi Prize Money Distribution	353
Public General Statutes	355
Papers on the Ionian Islands	357
Explorations in British North America	368
Law of Evidence in British India and Colonies	382
Sums Received for and Expended by Railway Companies in India	383
Immigrants and Liberated Africans introduced into the West Indies.....	384
Report on the Moral and Material Progress of India	385
Report on the State of the Colonies	406
Return of Annual Salaries in India	418
Return of Ecclesiastical Establishments in British North America	420
Report on Railways in India	421
Papers relating to Indigo Cultivation in Bengal	426
Correspondence on Honours bestowed on Native Princes of India	435
Statistical Tables relating to the Colonies.....	437
Public General Statutes	443
Correspondence relating to the Fiji Islands	445
Correspondence on the Capitation Rate for the British Troops in India	449
Report on Railways in India	451
Papers on the Disturbances in New Zealand	458
Further papers on the Disturbances in New Zealand	461
Memorandum on Indian Finance	478
Papers Relating to the Affairs of British Columbia	485
Copy of Letter on certain Claims against the State of Oude	491
Statistical Tables relating to British Colonies	497
Despatch on the Progress of the Gold Fields in Victoria	515

ANNALS
OF
BRITISH LEGISLATION:

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A CLASSIFIED AND ANALYSED SUMMARY OF PUBLIC BILLS, STATUTES,
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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Report of Charity Commissioners	1
Reports on Election Petitions	3
Sums expended on Westminster New Palace	6
Number of Orders of Removal	7
Report of the Topographical Department of the War Office	7
Bills	9
Report on Births, Deaths, and Marriages	18
Report on Births, Deaths, and Marriages, Scotland	23
Report on Marriages, Ireland	24
Report of the Poor Law Board, England	27
Report of the Poor Law Commissioners, Ireland	27
Report of Poor Law Board, Scotland	28
Letter on Weights and Measures	29
Report of Commissioners of Charitable Donations, Ireland	31
Report of Commissioners of Loan Fund	32
Number of Paupers in St. Marylebone Workhouse.....	33
Number of Constituencies	34
Report on Non-Parochial Registers	37
Population of Parishes	43
Report on Queen's Printer's Patent	43
Statistics of Population, Electors, Education, &c.	45
Return of Electors and Population	47
Area, Population, and Taxation of Counties and Boroughs, Ireland	47
Rateable Value and Rental of Parliamentary Cities	48
Report on Irremovable Poor	49
Correspondence on Materials for the History of Great Britain	56
Returns of Oaths used	57
Public General Statutes	59
Report on the Licensing System	69
Bills	92
Resolutions respecting Private Bills	99
Report of Charity Commissioners	102
Number of Male Residents assessed to the Poor Rate	106
Rateable and assessed Property of Cities and Boroughs	108
Report of Poor Law Board for England	109
Report of Poor Law Board for Scotland	120
Report of Poor Law Board for Ireland	123
Report of Commission on the Gloucester Election	129
Report of Commission on the Wakefield Election	141
Report of Registrar of Marriages, Ireland	142
Public General Statutes	145
Report of Poor Law Board	145
Report of Poor Law Board, Scotland	153

	PAGE
Report of Poor Law Board, Ireland	158
Report on Births, Deaths, and Marriages, England	163
Report on Births, Deaths, and Marriages, Scotland	180
Bills	192
Report on the Business of the House of Commons	193
Census of England and Wales, 1857	203
Census of Ireland	208
Census of Scotland	213
Report of Charity Commissioners	216
Report on the Administration of Poor Law	217
Report on Public Business	231
Report of Commission on the Thames Embankment	233
Report on Births, Deaths, and Marriages, Ireland Bill	238
Return of Rental of Houses rated for the Relief of the Poor	241
Public General Statutes	244
Report on Births, Deaths, and Marriages, England	249
Report of Grievances of Journeymen Bakers	265
Report of Committee on Weights and Measures	297
Report of Poor Law Board, England	316
Report of Poor Law Board, Scotland	320
Report on the Census of Scotland	321
Return of Accidents in the Metropolis	340
Return of Rates in the Metropolis	341
Return of Local Taxation	341
Report on Marriages, Ireland	347
Report on Local Government Act	348
Accounts of the Duchy of Cornwall	348
Report of Board of Works, Ireland	349
Report of Commission on Thames Embankment, Surrey Side	361
Report on the Ordnance Survey	373
Returns by Trustees of Charitable Funds.....	375
Report on Local Government Act	376
Report of Commissioners of Charitable Donations and Bequests, Ireland	376
Report of Poor Law Commissioners, England	377
Number of Births, Marriages, and Deaths in England	380

ANNALS
OF
BRITISH LEGISLATION:

BEING
A CLASSIFIED AND ANALYSED SUMMARY OF PUBLIC BILLS, STATUTES,
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M.DCCC.LXV.

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PRINTED BY SMITH, ELDER AND CO.,
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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Report on Yellow Fever in Lisbon	1
Report on the Care and Treatment of Lunatics	4
Report on Lunacy in Scotland	17
Report on Lunatics in English Workhouses	27
Report on Dublin Hospitals	31
Report on Lunatic Asylums in Ireland	33
Report on National Vaccine Board	54
Report of Copyhold Commissioners	55
Report of Inclosure Commissioners	56
Report of Weekly Return of the Board of Health of the Metropolis	56
Account of Receipts and Expenditure of the Board of Medical Education	57
Revenue of Greenwich Hospital	57
Return of Orders of Board of Health	58
Public General Statutes	59
Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council.....	61
Letter on Metropolitan Drainage	74
Bills.....	77
Report of Commissioners on Lunacy.....	78
Report on Turnpike Trusts	85
Report of Inclosure Commissioners	86
Report on Dublin Hospitals	86
Public General Statutes	87
Report on Sewage of Towns	89
Report of Commissioners in Lunacy for Scotland	97
Report of Commissioners in Lunacy for England and Wales	100
Report of Copyhold Commissioners	109
Report of Inclosure Commissioners	109
General Report on Turnpike Trusts	109
Accounts of Lunacy Commission	110
Public General Statutes	111
Report of Committee on Injury from Noxious Vapours	113
Report of Copyhold Commissioners	128
Report of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council.....	129
Report on the Health of the Navy	149
Army Medical Report	157
Report on Lunatic Asylums in Ireland	169
Report of Copyhold Commissioners	175
Report on Dublin Hospitals	176
Report of Inclosure Commissioners	176
Public General Statutes	181

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ANNALS
OF
BRITISH LEGISLATION:

BEING

A CLASSIFIED AND ANALYSED SUMMARY OF PUBLIC BILLS, STATUTES,
ACCOUNTS AND PAPERS, REPORTS OF COMMITTEES AND OF COMMISSIONERS, AND OF SESSIONAL
PAPERS GENERALLY, OF
THE HOUSES OF LORDS AND COMMONS.

EDITED BY

DR. LEONE LEVI, F.S.A., F.S.S.,

OF LINCOLN'S INN, BARRISTER-AT-LAW; PROFESSOR OF THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF COMMERCE
AT KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON; DOCTOR OF ECONOMICAL AND POLITICAL SCIENCES OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF TUBINGEN, WÜRTTEMBERG; AND AUTHOR OF "COMMERCIAL
LAW OF THE WORLD," "MANUAL OF MERCANTILE LAW," ETC.

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Report of Commissioners of Customs	1
Public Income and Expenditure.....	17
Board of Trade Accounts	19
Quantity of Tea consumed, 1801-1860	25
Return of Foreign Wine imported	26
Annual Accounts of Trade and Navigation	27
Bills	30
Amount of Dues raised in Packages	32
Imports and Exports of Copper	32
Board of Trade Accounts for 1861	33
Gross Amount produced by Duties of Customs and Excise	41
Return of Savings Banks	43
Return of Population and Revenue	44
Report of Commissioners of Inland Revenue	45
Report of Commissioners of Patents.....	47
Return of Civil List Pensions	49
Report on Guarantees of Money by Companies	53
Report on Agricultural Statistics, Ireland.....	54
Return of Income and Property Tax.....	55
Report on Salmon Fisheries	56
Public Income and Expenditure. (Mr. Williams' Return)	78
Quantity of Copper and other Metals imported and exported	81
Exchequer Accounts	81
Report on subjecting the Lace Manufactories to the Factory Acts	82
Correspondence with the Bank of England	85
Quantity of Spirits distilled	87
Earnings of Agricultural Labourers in England	88
Report on Fires in the Metropolis	88
Public Income and Expenditure	89
Report on Export Duties on Rags	91
Report on Agricultural Statistics, Ireland	97
Report on Ordnance Survey	102
Report on Means for Protection of Life and Property from Fire	104
Report of Committee on Income and Property Tax	110
Report of Inspectors of Factories	137
Return of Foreign Sugar	140
Public General Statutes	141
Accounts of the Trade of the United Kingdom	145
Report of Commissioners of Patents.....	151
Report of Commissioners of Customs	153
Report of Commissioners of Inland Revenue	159
Imports of Foreign Grain	167
Public Income and Expenditure for the First Quarter of 1862	168
Report on Charges on Foreign Trade	169
Report of the Fishery Commissioners, Ireland	185

	PAGE
Return of Customs Duties	189
Return of Income Tax Acts, 1798-1861	189
Amount of Income Tax as affected by Mr. Hubbard's Proposal	194
Miscellaneous Statistics	194
Return of Coal Miners' Accidents	202
Return of the Export of Rags	204
Reports on Trade of various Countries	205
Memorials on Sugar Duties.....	230
Report on Friendly Societies, Scotland	233
Statistics of Foreign Countries	235
Russian Dutch Loan	243
Applications to the Bank of England for Advances	244
Report of Committee on Trade Marks Bills	245
Report of Committee on Sugar Duties	258
Report on Sugar Refining in Bond	273
Consumption of Sugar, 1801-1861	278
Accounts of the Exchequer	284
Return of Sugar and Molasses used in Brewing and Distilling	284
Accounts of the Board of Trade	285
Public Income and Expenditure	296
Memorials on Treasure Trove	299
Reports on the Commerce of different Countries	301
Return of Gold Coinage tendered and rejected	335
Account of Gold, Silver, and Copper Monies coined, 1852-61	336
Account of Sardinian Loan	338
Account of Annuities for Lives and for Terms of Years, granted.....	338
Return of Fire Insurance Duty	339
Finance Accounts	341
Returns relative to the Public Expenditure	350
Report on the Duchy of Cornwall	351
Report of Patent Law Commissioners	365
Report of Salmon Fisheries Commissioners	368
Report of Commissioners of the Exhibition of 1862	385
Public General Statutes	417

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Report of Committee on Diplomatic Service	1
Report on Naval Yards	11
Papers on Turkish Finances	21
Correspondence respecting British Claims on Mexico	41
Correspondence on the Affairs of Poland, 1831-32	47
Correspondence with Prince Talleyrand respecting Poland	55
Cost of Forage for the Army	55
Convention with Morocco relative to a Loan	55
Sum spent on Fortifications	56
Number of Effectives in the Army and Militia	56
Number of Steam and Sailing Ships of the Navy	56
Despatch on the Cuban Slave Trade	57
Correspondence on the Affairs in China	59
Treaty of Commerce with China	79
Convention with the Emperor of China	87
Correspondence on the Slave Trade	89
Report on Barracks and Hospitals	96
Correspondence on Schleswig and Holstein	107
Public General Statutes	119
Correspondence on Mexican Affairs	121
Correspondence on Mexican Affairs. Part II.	133
Correspondence with the United States on International Maritime Law	145
Treaty with the United States on the Slave Trade	160
Convention with France on Joint Stock Companies	166
Correspondence on Military Service in China	167
Supplementary Convention on the Morocco Loan	168
Correspondence with the United States relative to the <i>Nashville</i> and <i>Tuscarola</i>	169
Despatch on the Reciprocity Treaty between America and Canada	171
Papers respecting the <i>Emily St. Pierre</i> of Liverpool	184
Correspondence on the Civil War in the United States.....	187
Report of Defence Commissioners on the Forts at Spithead.....	190
Convention with Denmark for the Mutual Surrender of Criminals	196
Papers respecting the French Occupation of Rome	198
Papers relating to the Blockade of the Ports of the Confederate States	203
Correspondence on the Withdrawal of Mr. Burch's Exequatur	206
Report of Committee on Barrack Works	209
Correspondence on the Affairs of Mexico.....	216
Despatch on British Claims in Mexico	223
Correspondence on the Imprisonment of Mr. Watson Taylor in Italy.....	224
Papers on the Arrest of Mr. Bishop in Naples	232
Report on the Volunteer Force	233
Report on Military Libraries	239
Flogging in the Army and Militia	244
Convention with Belgium on Communication by Post	244
SERIES B.—VOL. III.	

	PAGE
Number of Effectives in the Army	244
Papers relating to the Rebellion in China	245
Correspondence respecting Affairs in Japan	250
Papers relating to the Affairs of Italy	262
Return of the Establishment of Militia	264
Report on Turkish Finances	265
Applications for Ships of War for Foreign Stations	285
Papers on Danish Claims	291
Flogging in the Army and Militia	296
Correspondence on the Slave Trade	297
Correspondence on the Affairs of Holstein Schleswig and Lauenburg.....	314
Correspondence on the Affairs of Southern Italy	362
Correspondence on the Affairs of Syria	365
Accession of the Duke of Hesse to International Copyright Convention	387
Correspondence respecting Poland	389
Papers on the Arrest of Count Teleki	390
Number of Army Effectives	392
Treaty with the Republic of Salvador	393
Convention with Belgium on Joint Stock Companies	398
Treaty of Commerce with Belgium	399
Report of Defence Commissioners	404
Statement relative to the Advantages of Iron and Wooden Ships of War	406
Papers on the Foreign Relations of the United States	409
Papers on Brigandage in Italy	432
Public General Statutes	435

TRADE MARKS BILL.

Report of the Select Committee on Trade Marks Bill and Merchandise Marks Bill. (212.)

Two bills on the subject of trade marks were referred to the committee—one prepared in Sheffield, and one by Mr. W. M. Hindmarsh, for the Government. The committee was formed on the 26th of February, and on the 7th March, 1862, it was nominated as follows, viz.:—Mr. Roebuck, Mr. Milner Gibson, Mr. Crum Ewing, Sir Francis Goldsmid, Mr. Attorney-General, Mr. Crossley, Sir Hugh Cairns, Mr. Selwyn, Mr. Alderman Copeland, Mr. Hassard, and Mr. Warner: Mr. Potter and Mr. Moffatt were subsequently added to the committee. The witnesses examined were Mr. Robert Jackson, of Sheffield, saws and files manufacturer; Mr. William Lockwood, of Sheffield, cutler; Mr. Samuel Gardner, steel files manufacturer; Mr. David Ward; Mr. Frederick Thorpe Mappin, steel files manufacturer; Mr. William Brittain, of Sheffield; Mr. George Joseph Rodgers; Mr. William Smith, solicitor, Sheffield; Mr. Arthur Ryland, Chamber of Commerce, Birmingham; Mr. Robert S. Bartlett, needle manufacturer; Mr. J. S. Wright, Birmingham, button manufacturer; Mr. John Jobson Smith, Sheffield, President, Chamber of Commerce; Mr. Matthew Clark, Glasgow, thread manufacturer; Mr. Leonard Edmunds, Clerk of the Patents; Mr. Charles Brook, thread manufacturer; Mr. Bennet Woodcroft; Mr. William Felkin, lace maker and hosiery manufacturer; Mr. James Coats, Paisley, thread manufacturer; Mr. Daniel Sinclair, of Messrs. Wotherspoon and Co.'s, starch and confectionery manufacturers; Mr. George Wilkinson, master cutler, Sheffield; Mr. Michael Hunter, Sheffield; Mr. Bernard Gilpin, edge-tool manufacturer; Mr. John Polson, starch manufacturer, Paisley; Mr. Westley Richards, gunmaker; Mr. Robert Smith, tyre and small wares manufacturer; Mr. John Dale, Mr. George Moffatt, M.P., Mr. Edmund Potter, M.P., Mr. John Dillon, Mr. Samuel Morley, Mr. Thomas C. Coxon, of Messrs. Bass and Co.'s, Mr. George Chater, of Messrs. Gorsvenor, Chater, and Co., Mr. John Travers Smith, Mr. William M. Hindmarsh, Q.C., Mr. L. Heymann, Mr. W. H. Teulon, and Mr. Adolphus Baker.

The committee sat thirteen times, and on the 5th of May they agreed to report the evidence to the House.

Definition of Trade Mark.—Mr. Jackson, of Sheffield, defined a trade mark as follows:—"A trade mark means the name, emblem, or device used by any person to denote any article of manufacture to be the manufacture, workmanship, or production of such person, and serving to distinguish the products of one manufacturer from those of another. It does not mean a word or name or common denomination, descriptive of quality or quantity." Mr. Ryland said, "My idea of a trade mark is that it is a device used by manufacturers to denote the person by whom, or the place where, the article bearing it was made; so that a trade mark would be the only means of ascertaining that an article had been made by a certain manufacturer; and that not at all involving any idea of the quality or quantity of the article made." Mr. Wilkinson said, "A trade mark is a device to be stamped or impressed upon articles of manufacture, for the purpose of protecting the manufacturer against imitations; or an emblem impressed upon a manufacture for the purpose of denoting that that manufacture has been

produced by a certain person." Mr. Morley suggested that the expression "trade mark" should include any device lawfully used by any person to denote any chattel.

Existing Law on Trade Marks.—Mr. Hindmarsh stated the law to be as follows:—"I apprehend that the law at present in existence is a law to prevent cheats generally, and not merely to prevent the using or the pirating of trade marks, which is an improper term, except in Hallamshire. The object of the common law is to prevent cheats, whether by the use of fraudulent marks, the forging of names, the using of wrappers of similar colour, or using, perhaps, a combination of contrivances by which one man represents his goods to be the goods of another: that is the sort of thing which it is the object of the law to put down. Sometimes, when taking proceedings, people have urged that they had acquired a right by user to some particular phrase, or expression, or name, or colour; but the courts have always said, more particularly the Court of Chancery, that they had no such right, and all that they had a right to was this, that no other man should by fraud represent his goods to be those of another. That is the principle of the law, as I apprehend, which is in existence, and it applies not merely to the manufacture and sale of goods, but also to such things as omnibuses; and the Court of Chancery has interfered to prevent companies and persons from running omnibuses coloured and lettered, or otherwise marked, with the servants in the same liveries or otherwise, in such a way as to induce the public to believe that they were the omnibuses of another company. The last Master of the Rolls in one case said, as to the words 'conveyance company,' 'You have no right to that name, or to any other; the law does not recognize the existence of any such right.' That is what is understood to be the law which is in existence at present.

"I apprehend that the origin of trade marks, and the value of them, and not only of trade marks, but of many other similar things, was, that they were used by merchants and manufacturers as *indiciæ* of the goods being of their manufacture. There are many descriptions of goods as to which the public in general cannot judge as to their quality in any way; and that is more particularly so with regard to cutlery. An ordinary person cannot tell, when he takes up a knife, of what value it is: to his eye it would be equally good if made of cast iron, as of the best shear steel; but he finds, after some practice, that one description of knife answers well, while the other is utterly useless; and in that way the public learn to acquire confidence in the goods of any man who manufactures his goods in such a way as to give satisfaction, as, for example Messrs. Rodgers and Son, in making their cutlery. They have made their goods extremely well for many years, and the public have acquired confidence in them, and their trade mark is, therefore, valuable.

"The law provides a remedy by which a person may obtain damages for the imitation of his trade mark, and no doubt presupposes that such a person has adopted a particular mark, or a particular coloured wrapper, or some *indiciæ* which indicates those goods to be of his manufacture or merchandise; and having done so, if another man comes in and surreptitiously uses similar marks, so as fraudulently to represent his goods to be the goods of the other, that man is liable to be proceeded against as a cheat, and to be stopped by an injunction from the Court of Chancery."

Fraudulent Trade Marks.—Mr. William H. Brittain gave evidence on the frauds committed by German manufacturers, as follows:—

In Prussia, and many of the German States, I have seen articles bearing the names of the most respectable Sheffield houses, and their corporate marks, and sold as genuine, which were of bad quality, and which must inevitably injure the reputation of the manufacturers whose names they bore. The practice of marking the names of Sheffield manufacturers, and using their corporate marks, is so common in Remscheid and the neighbourhood, that I believe there are scarcely any manufacturers of files, edge tools, or saws, there, who use exclusively their own marks. In reference to our corporate mark, a manufacturer there once said to me, "That is struck millions of times in Remscheid." Another said, "That is our mark as well as yours." In the offices and warehouses of the Remscheid manufacturers I have seen files marked with our name which were never made in Sheffield, and labels in imitation of those used by us, several times. In August 1860, a merchant in Hanover told me that he had just had a file manufacturer offering files marked with our name, about 20 per cent. cheaper than we could supply him with them. In the same month a man in Bremen showed me some files in his office, manufactured by a house in Remscheid, and sold by him with our name and corporate mark, imitated very exactly. The labels were not a very good imitation. On the 2nd of October in the same year, a manufacturer of files near Remscheid showed me files cut but not hardened, marked with our name and corporate mark. Those files were manufactured by him; he said they were for the German market, and that without our mark it would not be easy to sell them. He also told me what marks he used for one or two other countries. These were the names of the Sheffield manufacturers of the best repute in those markets. In December last, a merchant in Hamburg showed me a list of prices of a Prussian manufacturer; I found from that, that he supplied files marked with our name and corporate mark, and edge-tools marked with the name and corporate mark of Messrs. Ward and Payne, the Sheffield manufacturers of those articles, the best known in the German market. From the Sheffield price list he had offered to deduct a very large discount from those files. Then again in January last, I was shown in Berlin, by a merchant there, some parcels of saw files: they were not of good quality, but they were marked "W. Hall, 2865." The labels were a bad imitation. I was in Remscheid in February, and I called upon a merchant there, who, on seeing the name on my card, reached down several parcels of files from the shelves, in his warehouse, and told me by whom they were manufactured; he laughed when he read aloud from the label, "none are genuine but those marked 'W. Hall, 2865.'" Another manufacturer, in the same town, showed me his order book, and, in one page of it, there was an order containing a few dozens of files marked with our name, and, observing that I noticed it, he said, "You see we are forced to send a few files marked with your name, but we do not make so many of them as most of the manufacturers here, because our trade is chiefly in a market where your files are not sold—Russia. On that account we generally send files with our own name." I noticed in the warehouse, there, files marked with the name of the Sheffield manufacturer with the best reputation in the Russian market, mentioned by him. I believe that the greater number of the manufacturers of saws, files and edge tools, in Remscheid and the neighbouring towns, regularly mark the names of the Sheffield manufacturers whose goods are in the best repute in the country from which they receive the order. The names used are different for

Spain, France, Germany and Russia. That which commands the best price and the readiest sale is used, according to the reputation enjoyed by the various Sheffield houses in those countries; and I believe that this is almost invariable. The goods which bear the Sheffield marks are generally of a quality inferior to that of those which are marked with the real names of the manufacturer, and this must undoubtedly be detrimental to the interests of the Sheffield manufacturers. A file maker in Rhenish Prussia once said to me, "We make files of three qualities; the first we mark with our own name, and the third with yours."

Upon the same subject, Mr. R. Jackson, of Sheffield, showed a file marked "Bedford," and made in Prussia. His nephew residing in Prussia said, "These marks, and that of Mottram and Sons, are what sell here." He further says, "In files the Germans have qualities much cheaper than the one I quote, which, however, is the quality which sells here, and of which I send you samples. In this place there are now not many German files with our mark, from the fact that our agents are at the same time agents for Luckhaus and Gunther, which house does the principal business here." That is a Remscheid house, and having appointed them our agents, they do not buy any German files. "The pocket-knife mark comes also largely from Germany of a very common quality. Large quantities of needles marked Hemming, E. Guard, &c., as also Patey's brown Windsor soap, come largely from Germany, counterfeited." I have handed in I think, a label of Patey's soap. "The German agents here have a full assortment of English labels, so that their customers can select any mark and label they wish. I enclose herein a few of these labels. There is no doubt, whatever, that the sale of these fraudulent goods is of great injury to the reputation of Sheffield makers. No sooner does a good article obtain a preference in this market than it is counterfeited by the Germans. Nevertheless, should you succeed in stopping this piracy, the Germans will still continue to sell many files and tools in this country in consequence of their cheap prices, but English makers will at least have the satisfaction of knowing that the good or bad reputation of their goods will then depend upon the quality. I have here an extract from another letter in August 1855:—"I have repeatedly given my opinion to the Remscheid merchants respecting the counterfeiting of marks; this practice is the rule, and not the exception in that town, and there is not a house in that town that will not do it whenever its customers require. The makers which principally strike our mark on files are Falkenrath and Co., and Gottlieb, Kartz, Courts, who make for the Spanish merchants; Luckhaus and Gunthers, Tillman Frères, and others. I enclose two labels used in Remscheid for Hall's files, and Ward and Payne's tools. These two marks are for the German market, and can be seen in every manufactory." Then there is another extract of the 30th of October 1856:—"The piracy of marks in the neighbourhood of Remscheid and Solingen continues as largely as ever at J. D. Schwarte's manufactory, Solingen. I saw him wrapping up razors marked G. B., J. Barber, Rodgers, and several other marks. He has exact copies of the wrappers and everything complete. Last year, when I appointed Friederichs and Kluff as our agents, I, of course, stipulated that they should not sell any German goods, and I now hear that Courts, who makes files for Luckhaus and Gunther, does not now mark our name for them. This is something, but, as a rule, the Remscheid makers mark their goods with any name their customer wishes. There are now also many large machine maker's

files made there of very good quality; these are generally marked with the name of the maker, who always tries to push his name on a good article, and the common goods are marked with an English name. No goods can now be sent to the United States from Germany bearing English names."

Fraudulent Marking of Quantities.—Mr. Charles Brook, a manufacturer of thread, gave the following evidence on the marking of reels of cotton:—

On the subject of trade marks, I have merely to say, that the forging of trade marks affects the manufacturer chiefly, but the false indication of quantity affects the consumer; one is to a great extent within the operation of the law, at present the other is not. It is my intention to confine my evidence to trade frauds, feeling assured that that part referring to trade marks will have had sufficient evidence by others more able to give it. (The evidence respecting our action in France was given by Mr. Brook in his examination yesterday.) Our firm have been manufacturers of cotton about 60 years, from 40 to 50 years makers of sewing cotton. I have been upwards of 30 years in the business. Up to the year 1849, we sold principally in the hank or bundle to the first-class cotton winders in England. About this time we commenced winding our own manufacture for the American market. In the year 1852, after taking the only prize at the Exhibition of 1851, we commenced winding for the home market. Until then we were ignorant of the grossly dishonest practices in trade. Our first practical insight into them arose from a respectable shipper in Manchester sending us an order, but objecting to our prices, he not requiring full length. Instead of giving 300 yards as marked on the ticket, he wanted 230 yards of cotton; 200 yards to have 170 yards; and 100 yards, 70 yards. I was so greatly astonished at this, that I immediately replied, "Surely, sir, you do not wish to make us into a set of rogues?" He replied, "There is no roguishness about it, as it is the universal custom of the trade, and you must do the same, or you cannot succeed in your new business as winders." I answered that we had never done business on such a dishonest principle. The consequence was, that we lost ground for the two or three years, and we then patented a new article termed "glacé cotton." The sale of our new manufacture, combined with honest lengths, soon made its way, and since then we have had a very satisfactory business. From an occurrence that took place in the year 1859, I wrote a letter to the *Manchester Guardian*, urging the formation of an association to suppress the practice of short lengths. I also obtained the co-operation of the respectable houses, Messrs. J. and P. Coats, Paisley, and Messrs. John Clark, junior, and Co., Mile End, Glasgow. They agreed with me to subscribe 500*l.* to form the said association. I was entrusted to look out for a secretary. Mr. Minchin, of Manchester, was selected. We first called upon the principal houses in Manchester. I found all to condemn the principle; but the difficulty was to meet it, and I was considered a bold man to attempt it; and, at their suggestion, we were recommended to see the wholesale houses first in London, and try and get them not to send orders for short lengths, as, they very truly said, we have no advantage in selling short lengths, "We are only paid for the quantity we give." We also called upon several merchants; one I shall never forget. The master took me up to the small-ware department, and the buyer astonished him when he told him that they had reels of cotton that only measured 25 yards, marked 100 yards. The fact was, that shippers had a list of prices drawn up, headed 100 yards, but you could buy any length from 30 to 100 yards,

at prices in accordance with the length on the reels, but all marked 100 yards. We first obtained the concurrence of the leading London houses, and met several times in committee, and drew up rules, of which a copy is enclosed. This sanction we thought a great step towards the mitigation of the evil. We continued agitating the question of trade frauds, but the leading London firms gradually became lukewarm. The fact was, they saw that the association was becoming too warm for them, and they urged that it was more a manufacturer's question than theirs. They said, "Let the manufacturers form an association, and get them not to sell us short lengths. My reply to this was, "True; but do not you force them to make such goods?" And what I want to see is, that certain manufacturers and merchants do not act together as conspirators. The law should be made to reach both. We persevered, and had the honour of an interview with Mr. Milner Gibson, who, on the part of the Government, promised to frame a bill. At that meeting we were accompanied by your chairman, Mr. Bazley, M.P.; Mr. Westhead, M.P.; and Mr. Schofield, M.P. Since then, seeing that Government had taken up the matter, we made an end of our association. I have called upon very many retail houses during the last few years, and I am glad to say that, almost universally, they are anxious for a law forbidding trade frauds. In illustration, in a small agricultural town in the North Riding of Yorkshire, a retail house said, it was high time something was done, for really he hardly knew whether he was obtaining a profit or not. He went on to say, that he complained to a large wholesale house in Manchester that they had sent him cloth much shorter than invoiced, and demanded a reduction in the amount; and what think you was the reply?—(this he showed me)—that they had sent what was the custom of the trade, and they could not make any reduction. Another, in the town of Doncaster, stated that the evil was unbearable. He said, "I have hardly an article in my shop that will measure out the quantity invoiced to me. Now, for instance, there is a quantity of pocket handkerchiefs lying on the opposite counter, they should all be square. (He measured them in my presence, and there was not one correct.) Again, I will measure silk ribbon rolls; they ought to contain 18 yards, as invoiced, and, upon an average, they will not measure more than from 16 to 17 yards." He did so, and such was the fact. "Such is the state of things," he continued, "that I am obliged to employ my young men to measure nearly every article that comes in, so that I may fix my price accordingly, or I should never know whether I made a profit or not. If I complain, I am answered it is the custom of the trade. (Evidence "on reels without length stated" was given by Mr. Brook yesterday.) It has been urged against us as winders, that we do not, on every individual reel, give correct length. This is quite true, and no winder can guarantee this. We are in the hands of our workpeople, who may purposely or carelessly give rather more or less length. What we have to do is, to detect and correct such work. In the bill now before the House, the clauses state that there must be proved an intent to defraud. Although we cannot guarantee in every case the quantity ticketed, we can guarantee the full lengths, taking the average of a number of reels; that is, if one reel has too little, another has too much. I hope that the few statements I have made will convince your honourable committee that a bill for remedying the gross evils in trade is urgently required. They are but one in a hundred that I could relate to you. Believe me, there is a demand for legislation in

this vicious system of fraud, and which, in a professed Christian country, is a disgrace to us as a nation. I have heard many men, anxious to conduct their business honestly, say they are too often forced to resort to such tricks against their own conscience to meet such wicked competition, or they must close their business. This is not confined to one business, for I shall not be far wrong when I say it is common to all. In saying this, I hope it will not be construed that I am attacking individuals, but a system; as I rejoice to say we have many honourable men in trade who can more than verify every word I have stated. I believe great good has already been the result of the last few years' agitation on this question, particularly in the home trade. In the shipping trade, I fear matters are little better. There is a practice in this country by the very first-class vendors of the kind. Here is a cotton that I produce, which is a most expensive article; it is nine-cord cotton; they do not put any length upon the reels, but in their invoices they call it 300 yards, and in their list of prices they so call it. Now, I have measured these reels many times in my life, and I have never found more, upon the average, than 250 yards; and I think that in any bill there should be a clause to insist (referring now to articles difficult to measure, in order to ascertain the length) that all such articles should have the length guaranteed; I do not know that that is provided for in the bill, but certainly it is a very essential thing. I went into a shop, and said, "What length is there upon that reel?" The answer was, "Three hundred yards." I said, "I know you are telling me an untruth." I heard a gentleman praising his thread very much and abusing ours, and I said to him, "Is it better to sell a dishonest article, or an honest article?" He said, "You do not mean to say that I am selling a dishonest article?" I said, "I will give you 1s. for every yard that there is above 230." He seemed amazed at such a thing; but I said, "Now, sir, you have abused my cotton, and I hope you will carry it out; there is 6d. for your bobbin, and 6d. for your trouble; measure it in my presence." He did so; and there were 235 yards only upon that reel of cotton. This is done by very respectable vendors indeed, and this is an instance (*handing in a reel*); but I have taken the name off it. I think that that is a very shameful reel; that reel had 240 yards on it, and the committee will at once see the difference. One is ours, and the other is a different maker; they are the same number of cotton identically, but see how much larger one reel is than the other; there are 300 yards guaranteed upon ours, and 240 upon the other, and the consumer is cheated of 50 yards.

Comparative Merits of the two Bills.—Mr. Hindmarsh said, I have compared Bill No. 1 with Bill No. 2 very carefully; and I had an opportunity of discussing Bill No. 1, or, at least, some of its provisions, with some of the gentlemen at Sheffield, some time ago, and they stated their views, and I heard what they had to allege in favour of registration. In Bill No. 2, there are several provisions to which there is nothing to correspond in No. 1.

But there are provisions in each Bill which are to some extent common to the two. There is no very great difference in the definition, except as to the word "persons." They are larger in extent; there is more provision made in the one than in the other, with respect to the significations of words.

In Bill No. 1, "person" is confined to the subjects of her Majesty. In Bill No. 2, it is "persons," whether subjects of her Majesty or not; and that

is to be considered, I think, in this way: suppose a manufacturer to be a foreigner residing abroad—a man living at Calais or Boulogne, a Frenchman, but carrying on business in England. It is a matter, of course, for the committee to consider; but I should think it would be but fair that he should have the same protection as other manufacturers.

By the present law he is put upon the same footing as an Englishman; and that was my chief intention in extending the signification of the word as you have done.

Clause No. 2 relates to "forging or imitating a trade mark with intent to defraud," which is to be made a misdemeanor; and there is a provision in Bill No. 2, as to forging or imitating a trade mark, but I think that is fuller. It is more full and explicit, and there are several things that are important which are comprised in section 2 in No. 2 Bill, which are not in No. 1. I apprehend that in every case of this sort there are two objects which a person may have in forging, or two interests, which he may have injured in forging—he defrauds the manufacturer who would have sold, and he deceives the purchaser who buys, the article upon which he forges a trade mark. The committee will observe that the word used is "defraud," and not "fraud." Perhaps, the general meaning of the term "fraud" would include deceit, but "defraud" seems rather to imply the taking of something from a person that he has a right to, and I think it is more applicable to the case of an injury done to a manufacturer or vendor. The other word is "deceive," and certainly a purchaser is deceived if he is induced to buy an article which is not the manufacture of the person he supposes it to be. I cannot imagine any deceit of that description that could be deemed to be innocent, and not such as ought to be put down. One object always would be to deceive a purchaser, and he would be deceived, even though the article so passed should turn out to be as good, even better. Supposing, in thought, he was buying Rodger's razors, and they turned out to be Thompson's, which he did not intend to buy; and, therefore, I thought, in looking over Lord Campbell's Bill of last year, that there was an omission, or it was supposed that the word "defraud" included every description of fraud, which I apprehend it does not. A person, in order to be successful in a prosecution upon a charge of deceit, that is, the person who purchased the goods, would have to swear that he would not have parted with his money for those goods unless he had believed that they had been made by the person whose trade mark was borne by the goods. I apprehend that it would not be quite necessary to do it in that way, but it would be necessary to say this—"I purchased that article, believing that it was the article of another person," and that, I apprehend, would make out the charge.

There are two branches of clause 2 in the first bill. The one applies to the marks put on the articles themselves, and the other applies to the trade marks or false trade marks put on "cases, covers, wrappers, casks, and so on." It seemed to me to be very inconvenient to include all those in one section, and I divided it into two, more particularly as it seemed necessary to carry the provisions, as to the latter part of the subject, very much further than I found them in Bill No. 1.

In section 2 of No. 2, provision is made for applying a forged mark to the commodities themselves, and in section 3 you provide against applying false or forged marks to wrappers and labels. In section 3, there is provision made as to a trade mark being applied to "any cask, bottle, stopper,

vessel, case, cover, wrapper, band, reel, ticket, label, or other thing, in, on, or with which any chattel or article shall be intended to be sold." That is one description of mode in which a fraud may be perpetrated. but then there comes another, which is provided for by the next clause in the same section.

The second branch of clause No. 2, Bill No. 1, at line 13, runs thus, "or to any case, cover, wrapper, cask, bottle, reel, stopper, or other thing, in, on, or with which any chattel or article shall be intended to be or shall be sold." That seemed to me to be incomplete, and that the provision ought to be carried very much further.

The difference between section 3 of No. 1 Bill and section 4 of No. 2 is, firstly, it is provided in section 4 of No. 2, that the enactment shall begin, or rather take effect, on the 31st of December, 1863. It seemed to us that that was important, because traders, having stocks of goods, and presuming that the law would remain as it is, ought to have an opportunity of getting rid of that stock before a penal enactment came into force. As to manufacturers, it does not seem to be necessary to do that, for the moment a man knows that the law makes a thing penal he should hold his hand; but in the case of a man who has a stock that he cannot get rid of for some time, it would be hard to make the enactment apply to him, unless he had an opportunity to get rid of his goods.

The character of the offence, I observe, differs in section 3 of No. 1, from section 4 No. 2, the offence being made a misdemeanor by Bill No. 1; but to be visited only with a penalty by Bill No. 2. It seemed to me to be very inexpedient to visit the offence of selling with the same degree of punishment as the offence of making and counterfeiting. No doubt, the man who makes and counterfeits a trade mark is the author of all the wrong: the moral turpitude in him is much greater, although it may be possibly going a little too far to relieve the seller from the punishment of misdemeanor; for, as it has been said, if there were no receivers of goods, there would be no thieves; but the moral turpitude in the one case is clearly less than in the other. I think that the public would rebel against making such an enactment. I do not think that you could put it in force; and I think it is, therefore, inexpedient, and much better to have a penalty. The words "author of all the wrong" being used in the bill, Mr. Hindmarsh was asked to explain those words to the committee; and he said,—When I say, author of all the wrong, I mean that he is the first of a series of persons who commit wrong; he makes the thing with the fraudulent or false trade mark. But it must be borne in mind that the maker is often a man without money, or, as it is called, a man of straw, while the person who orders the goods, and induces the maker to mark them falsely, is frequently a man of capital and position, as I know, I am sorry to say, from my experience, and from facts which have come to my knowledge professionally, and therefore I cannot mention names. Indeed, I have known firms of very high reputation in the country who have induced manufacturers to put forged trade marks on goods, more particularly in Manchester. Accordingly, the author of all the wrong is the manufacturer, because, in the case put as showing the beginning of the fraud, he would be the person who set the other to work.

The offence is different in section 3 of Bill No. 1, and in section 4 of Bill No. 2; in one case it is made a misdemeanor, and in the other it is not. It seems to me to be very essential to make a distinction between a man who

forges a thing and another who merely sells a thing, who may sell it in ignorance that the mark upon his goods is forged; and I think it would be very hard, in any case, to make him guilty of a misdemeanor. The same difference is made in the offences of forgery and coining; the law does not visit the person who utters with the same degree of punishment as the man who coins; the punishment is different; and it seems to me to be wise to recognise a distinction between the one description of offence and the other.

Clause 3 in Bill No. 1 relates to "selling goods with forged or false trade marks, with intent to defraud." In clause 4 of Bill No. 2, "every person knowingly selling articles with forged or false trade marks," after the date specified, would be liable only to a penalty.

It requires knowledge that a fraud has been committed in putting a name on a piece of goods that he is about to sell; and if he sells it, he commits an offence, and ought to be punished in some way. I apprehend that a penalty is the best way of doing it. I would punish for knowingly selling without reference to "with intent to defraud," as far as regards the words of the enactment; but having knowledge of a forged mark being upon his goods would show a fraudulent intent in selling them so marked.

In section 4 in Bill No. 1 there is a provision that "all penalties shall be paid to the prosecutor." There is a difference, I think, in Bill No. 2 in that respect. It appears to me to be an inexpedient course to pursue. There are many cases in which penalties are to be paid one-half to the Crown and one-half to the informer; and then the mischief is, that a man who is suing for a penalty gets the reputation of being an informer. It is said very often, and I believe truly, that actions of that description are brought by speculative attorneys for the sake of getting costs, and portions of the penalties, and the consequence is that, in a great many cases, parties do not succeed in such actions when they ought to do, and in some cases such actions are brought when they ought not to be brought. It is inexpedient in my opinion to give the penalty to the party who prosecutes, as provided in No. 1 Bill; I think it ought to go always entirely to the Crown. My view was, in framing many of these clauses, rather to improve the civil remedy which an injured person should have against a wrong-doer, than to induce him, by putting in force the penal clauses of the act, to punish the person who was doing the wrong; and I think that instead of the penalty going to the prosecutor it ought, in every case, to go entirely to the Crown.

The proposal made that the penalty should go to any party aggrieved, I think unreasonable, because it would do him a great deal of harm. He would have all the disreputation of going for a penalty as an informer, when he might, if he pleased, avail himself of the improved civil remedies that are provided in the Bill No. 2; he could recover all the damage sustained by the false marks upon defendant's goods, and all his costs.

Section 5 in No. 1 Bill raises a very important question. The section provides that the summary jurisdiction shall be before any two or more justices, under the 11th and 12th Victoria, chap. 43, for England, which is also in the other bill, to which I beg to call attention, it being very important to consider whether there ought to be any conviction before the justices. Then, in Bill No. 1, there are these words, "and as to Ireland, in the manner directed by the Petty Sessions (Ireland) Act, 1851." In framing section 15, in Bill No. 2, I have not inserted anything like a power for two justices in Ireland to proceed to convict for any offence, because I found

that Lord Campbell, in framing his bill, did not put in any such provision, either with regard to Ireland or Scotland. Scotland, I think, he must be deemed to have been tolerably well acquainted with. I suppose it was because the magistrates in those two different parts of the country are not quite of the same class, or many of them, as the justices on the bench in this country, and that struck me as being a very good reason for leaving the provision out. I think it may be worthy of consideration whether it is expedient to allow it to stand even for England, and for this reason, that, although in a great many parts of the country, the justices are perfectly well aware of the nature of questions of this sort; yet, if you get into a remote part, where gentlemen may know nothing about them, they may be puzzled, and obliged to rely upon the advice of some country practitioner, who perhaps knows nothing more than himself; and they may be thus very prone to get wrong. Even in London, I have known cases under the Copyright of Designs Act, in which things done by justices were not as they ought to have been.

It seemed to me, that it would be a very good thing to shorten the proof, and to simplify the allegations in pleadings in all matters relating to trade marks. Trade marks, I apprehend, would be treated, and I know that they are treated in all legal proceedings, in the same way as forged instruments in indictments and pleadings relating to forgery. There, you set forth a facsimile of a thing, and in many cases it would be utterly impossible to do it with trade marks. It is enough that the thing should be alleged to be a trade mark, and that the allegation that a man had forged a trade mark should be sufficient. It is a very similar clause to that which is in Lord Campbell's Bill, and I think it will be a very useful one; but the clause in the other bill stops short by only applying the enactment to proceedings under the Act. I think that it should be carried much further, and should apply to all suits and all proceedings whatsoever, and so I have framed it.

There is no provision in Bill No. 2, corresponding with the sections 9 and 10 in Bill No. 1, as regard registration.

With regard to No. 9, which states, "The person in whose name and behalf such trade mark stands registered shall be considered the proprietor thereof," of course I saw very early, when I began to consider the subject, that registration and proprietorship seemed to go hand in hand. When a person talks of registration in connection with a trade mark, he seems to think that he will register to acquire a proprietorship in the trade mark; but that, it appears to me, would be a very inconvenient thing. For example, John Smith may use his own name as a trade mark, but he has no particular right to the name of John Smith,—any other man may be called John Smith and use his name as a trade mark; but, if there be one John Smith, and any other person writes his name in such a way as to appear to be his handwriting upon a bill of exchange, it is a forgery, and may be punished without reference to any sort of registration. There is nothing more requisite than this: you might say to the man whose name has been forged, "Your name is John Smith?—Yes. Is that your handwriting?—No. Does that writing resemble it, or does it appear to you to be written in such a way as to resemble your writing?—Yes, it does, but it is not my handwriting." That would be a complete case for a conviction on the charge of forgery, and I cannot see why there should be any more necessity for registration in the one case than in the other.

The words in section 9 are these: "And such trade mark shall be

deemed the personal property of the proprietor, and shall be transmissible according to the ordinary rules of law affecting personal property." It seems to me that that is unnecessary to begin with, and I think it is fraught with mischief. I would not give a power to sell a trade mark, quite independently of the place in which the purchaser was to use it, or the manufactory in which he was to make the goods, and so on. To do so, would seem to import this, that a man might have a trade mark, although he never used it, and he might have the power to say nobody shall use this mark, it is mine, although I do not choose to use it. If it were transmissible according to the ordinary rules of law, there would be nothing to prevent a man selling it, and selling it to a person who should use it at a totally different place, and under different conditions. I think that it is not proper to create such a right by legislation, and that it would be creating a monopoly.

By clause 6 in Bill No. 2, "any person who, after the 31st December, 1863, shall have sold an article having a false trade mark upon it." shall be bound to give information where he procured it, and shall be liable to a penalty of 5*l.* for refusing it.

There is no provision corresponding to that, in Bill No. 1; and I will explain to the committee how that occurred to me to be necessary; in discussing the difficulties in the way of putting down these frauds and forgeries, what almost every person urged upon me was this: "How are we to get at the fraudulent parties, and how are we to obtain the information?" You go into a shop and you buy an article, and you find that your trade mark is upon it, and if you go to the tradesman he will say "I do not know anything about it." You will say to him. "Where did you get it?" He is not obliged to tell you, and there you are stopped,—you can get no further. Then what are you to do? You may impose penalties, and by that you may do a great deal. If you catch the offender you may punish him, but how are you to get at him? After a great deal of reflection I devised this section, and I explained it to several manufacturers and several traders, and they all said at once that that would clear away the difficulty, and they said, "We can get back from one person to another, until we get to the real offender?" If a shopkeeper sells you an article with your trade mark upon it, you will say to him "This is a fraud. Tell me where you got this, or you will be liable to punishment for an offence, and, more than that, you will be deemed to have had a guilty knowledge." I think that no trader would ever refuse to give the requisite information; you would get then, perhaps, to the wholesale dealer, and from him to the manufacturer; and then, observe, there is the knowledge of all those persons that the law is such, and that they may be reached, and that will have a wonderful effect upon men's minds, and greatly prevent the use of fraudulent marks. The world has come to such a state, that I believe thieves and house-breakers are in the constant habit of considering what the law is, and how they can evade it. I believe that men very often take advice as to whether such and such acts will be within the meaning of a particular Act of Parliament. If they are not, then they will go on and commit them; but if they are, they will hold their hands. After great consideration, it appeared to me that the only way would be in the case of a person selling an article which had a trade mark upon it, that he should be bound to give information as to where he got it.

Memorandum of some Cases in which an Act is Criminal apart from the Intent, and of certain Cases in which the Onus of Proof of Justification or Excuse is on the Person charged with the Offence. (Delivered by Mr. John Travers Smith.)

THE mere possession of Government stores, or any article bearing the mark of her Majesty's dockyards, without a certificate authorizing such possession, is an offence, though the sale of such stores by the Government is legal, 9 & 10 Will. 3, c. 41, s. 1; 53 Geo. 3, c. 126; 55 Geo. 3, c. 127; so are the possession of bank notes without lawful excuse, 11 Geo. 4, and 1 Will. 4, c. 66, s. 12, and without proof of any intention to issue them, or the possession of any instrument for making them, and the possession of any instrument for coining, or the making of coin—these are felonies, 2 Will. 4, c. 34, ss. 3 and 10. The mere knowingly having in possession, without lawful excuse (the proof whereof shall be on the person accused), any counterfeit die, plate, or other instrument for imitating postage stamps or envelopes, or stamping, uttering or having in possession any paper marked therewith, knowing the same to be counterfeit, are felonies, 3 & 4 Vict. c. 96, s. 22. Counterfeiting any instrument of any of the various Companies of Goldsmiths, for marking gold or silver, or imitating the marks, or knowingly uttering wares of base metal so marked, 7 & 8 Vict. c. 22, s. 2; counterfeiting any such mark, even if on gold or silver, or removing any such mark from one article to another, even if that other be itself gold or silver, whether with or without proof of intent to defraud, and without permitting of excuse, are all felonies, 7 & 8 Vict. c. 22, s. 2. The knowingly having in possession, without lawful excuse (the proof whereof shall lie on the party accused), any counterfeited instrument, or gold, silver, or base metal, with counterfeited mark or removed mark, or removing a mark with intent to affix same to any other ware, whether of gold, silver, or base metal, are likewise felonies. So the imitating the mark of the Birmingham Proof House for gun barrels, or knowingly selling any barrel bearing an imitation of such mark without intent to defraud, is a misdemeanor, 53 Geo. 3, c. 115, s. 9; or the marking of a hammer on cutlery not made of hammered steel, or the mere having in possession, for the purpose of sale, articles so marked, or marking or possession for sale of cutlery with a false indication of quality, or with the words "London" or "London made" thereon, unless manufactured in the City of London, or within 20 miles thereof, are all misdemeanors, 59 Geo. 3, c. 7, s. 3; *ib.* s. 4; *ib.* s. 5.

A prisoner is compelled in various cases to set up and prove his defence to a criminal charge, instead of the entire onus of proof lying on the prosecution.

This is by common law wherever "the act is not indifferent, but in itself unlawful, the proof of justification or excuse in such case lying on the defendant, and on failure thereof, the law implying a criminal intent," per Lord Mansfield, *Rex v. Woodfall*, 5 Burr. 2667. In many cases, this is so by statute. The simple possession of goods suspected to have been unlawfully obtained, where criminality is assumed, unless a satisfactory account be given by the accused, as distinguished from the possession, knowing them to be unlawfully obtained, a less punishment being awarded in the former case, 2 & 3 Vict. c. 71, s. 24; 7 & 8 Geo. 4, c. 29, ss. 54, 55. The being found with house-breaking implements, or even common keys (which

could be used for housebreaking), without lawful excuse, without proof of use, or of intention to use, is a misdemeanor, 14 & 15 Vict. c. 19, s. 1.

A person charged simply with wandering abroad, and having no visible means of subsistence or fixed abode, and not giving a good account of himself, is liable to imprisonment with or without hard labour, *Reg. v. Oldham*, 2 Den. C. C. 472; *Reg. v. Bailey, Dears*, C. C. 244; 5 Geo. 4, c. 83.

SUGAR DUTIES.

Report of the Committee appointed to Inquire into the Operation of the present Scale of Sugar Duties, with special reference to their Assessment upon a Classification according to the Quality of the Sugar.

THIS committee was appointed on the 29th April, 1862; and on the 1st May it was nominated as follows:—Mr. Crawford, Mr. Cardwell, Sir John Packington, Mr. Thos. Baring, Mr. Cave, Mr. Dunlop, Mr. Crum Ewing, Mr. Gregson, Mr. Hankey, Mr. Moffatt, Mr. Potter, Mr. John Tollemache, Mr. Charles Turner, and Mr. Vance. On the 2nd May, Mr. Allen Bathurst was added to the committee, and Mr. Cardwell was elected chairman. The committee sat sixteen times.

The following were the witnesses examined:—Sir Thomas Francis Freemantle and Mr. R. A. Ogilvie, of the Customs; Mr. Archibald Travers, of Messrs. Joseph Travers and Sons, wholesale grocers; Mr. Henry Nelson, of Messrs. Crawford, Colvin, and Co., East India merchants; Mr. J. A. Guthrie, of Messrs. Chalmers, Guthrie, and Co., Mauritius merchants; Mr. J. Gustave Adam, Mauritius planter; Mr. J. T. White, Mr. Duncan Macdonald, British Guiana; Mr. John Binney Key, Madras merchant; Mr. Leon Arnaud, planter, Mauritius; Mr. Charles Wright, grocer; Mr. John Mackenzie, Madras trader; Mr. John Arbuthnot, of Arbuthnot, Latham, and Co., East India traders; Mr. Crawford D. Ken, Demerara planter; Mr. Frederick Stokes, Mr. Henry Taylor, Mr. Francis Reed, colonial brokers; Mr. Thomas Close, wholesale grocer; Mr. Thomas Young, colonial broker; Mr. Samuel Howell, colonial broker; Mr. Thos. G. Kirkpatrick, Mr. John Davis, Mr. John Fainie, Mr. A. W. Gadesden, Mr. Alfred Fryer, Mr. Peter Martineau, Mr. David Richardson, sugar refiners; Mr. William Rennie, of Messrs. Cavan, Lubbock, and Co.; Mr. Thomas Porter, Mr. James Colquhoun, Mr. G. H. Chambers, West India merchants; Mr. Thos. Nachten, of Messrs. Bosanquet and Naghten, Colonial Bank; and Mr. F. St. John, surveyor-general of Customs.

On the 7th June, the following resolutions, to be proposed by the chairman, were read as follows:—

“That it is the opinion of this committee—

“1. That the evidence does not justify the committee in recommending the adoption of refining in bond.

“2. That the amount of revenue now derived from sugar could not, with justice to the consumers of the lower classes of sugar, be raised by any uniform duty applicable to all classes.

“3. That it is not possible to charge sugars with duties varying exactly with the quality or value.

"4. That it is necessary to maintain the principle of a scale of duties, with standards designed to include several classes of sugar within each range of duty.

"5. That if any alteration be made in the present scale, the chief object of such alteration should be to admit, at a lower duty than at present, certain of the sugars now paying 12s. 8d. and 16s. respectively; or sugars which are now excluded, because, if imported, they would be liable to those duties.

"6. That sufficient evidence has been laid before the committee to warrant the conclusion that such alteration might be made without any important risk to the revenue."

Resolutions, to be proposed by Mr. Crawford, were read as follows:—

"1. That the first interests to be considered in this matter are those of the consumers, and the maintenance of the revenue.

"2. That the interests of producers and of the refiners are of secondary importance, and cannot claim to be sustained or adjusted by particular action on the part of the Legislature.

"3. That it is a breach of the fundamental principles of freedom of trade to create any legislative machinery with the view to reconcile differences of climate or soil, or to remedy the effect of deficiencies of labour.

"4. That an uniform duty on all kinds of sugar is in accordance with these principles; but that, inasmuch as the imposition of a high duty on sugar has a particular bearing on the trade of the refiner, and the supply of his produce to the consumer, refining in bond for home consumption is an obvious supplement to an uniform duty, and would equitably dispose of many of the objections of such a duty.

"5. That the chairman of the Board of Customs, and the officers of the department, have stated that refining in bond is impracticable with due security to the revenue.

"6. That whilst refining in bond cannot, therefore, be recommended, the case can be fairly met by substituting an alternative for refining in bond.

"7. That as such a substitution must necessarily be imperfect, and can only be obtained by departure from the principles before stated, the deviation should be no more than will satisfy the object in view.

"8. That such object will be attained with the smallest sacrifice of principle, by the imposition of two duties only on sugar consumed in this country, as, it has been stated in evidence, is the rule in France, Belgium, Holland, Russia, Germany, and America.

"9. That all sugar below the quality of No. 19 of the Dutch standard, should be charged with 13s. 2d. per cwt., the assumed average of the existing rates of duty on raw sugars.

"10. That sugar of the quality of No. 19 and upwards of the Dutch standard, should be charged with a duty of 18s. 4d. per cwt.

"11. That there should be allowed one drawback only on refined sugar, at such a rate as the circumstances of the case shall require."

Resolutions, proposed by Mr. Cave, were read as follows:—

"1. That the duties ought to be so regulated as to encourage the largest possible supplies of sugar from the various sources of production, in what-

ever form the same may be imported, whether as refined sugar, or in combination with other substances to be afterwards separated by the process of refining.

" 2. That while it has been confidently stated that the best solution of certain difficulties attending a graduated scale of duties would be the permission to refine sugar in bond, without which the adoption of an uniform rate of duty would be highly inexpedient, yet the Customs authorities have expressed so much doubt with regard to the security of the revenue, if such permission were granted, that the committee feel themselves precluded from recommending it.

" 3. That, under these circumstances, it is desirable to maintain a graduated scale of duties, designed to comprise within the range of each, such qualities as may be properly classed under one denomination.

" 4. That the existing scale may be rendered more equitable by such an alteration as shall admit, at lower relative rates of duty, the inferior portion of the sugars which are now liable to pay 12s. 8d. and 16s. respectively.

" 5. That sufficient evidence has been laid before the committee to warrant the conclusion that such an alteration might be made without any important risk to the revenue."

Resolutions, to be proposed by Mr. Potter, were read as follows:—

" 1. That the present scale of duties on sugar, induces an import of the lower descriptions, and affords a bounty to the refiner at the expense of the revenue.

" 2. That a fixed duty of 13s. 4d. would induce a larger import of fine sugars at a lower price, create a larger consumption, and benefit both the consumer and the revenue."

Resolutions, to be proposed by Mr. Gregson, were read as follows:—

" 1. That the present graduated scale of duties subjects the importers to delay, uncertainty, and annoyance, which would be obviated by a uniform rate of duty.

" 2. That a graduated scale encourages the importation of inferior sugar, while a uniform rate of duty would tend to supply the public with better qualities of sugar.

" 3. That a uniform rate of 13s. 2d. duty on raw sugar would yield the present amount of revenue."

After much discussion on the resolutions proposed, as proposed by the different members, the committee were ordered to report as follows:—

" 1. That the amount of revenue now derived from sugar could not, with justice to the consumers of the lower classes of sugar, be raised by any uniform duty applicable to all classes.

" 2. That it is not possible to charge sugars with duties varying exactly with the quality or value.

" 3. That it is necessary to maintain the principle of a scale of duties, with standards designed to include several classes of sugar within each range of duty.

" 4. That the duties ought to be so regulated as to encourage the largest possible supplies of sugar from the various sources of production, in whatever form the same may be imported—whether as refined sugar or in

combination with other substances to be afterwards separated by the process of refining.

"5. That the existing scale may be rendered more equitable by such an alteration as shall admit, at lower relative rates of duty, the inferior portion of the sugars which are now liable to pay 12s. 8d. and 16s. respectively.

"6. That sufficient evidence has been laid before the committee to warrant the conclusion that such alterations might be made without any important risk to the revenue.

"7. That the evidence does not justify the committee in recommending the adoption of refining in bond.

"July 8, 1862."

The following is an abstract of the evidence of witnesses :—

Sir T. J. Fremantle gave an account of the sugar duties.

History of Sugar Duties.—Previous to 1844 the tariff recognised no difference in the quality of sugar except that of unrefined and refined, and white and brown candy; discriminating rates were levied on the last three descriptions. Refined sugar was charged with a rated duty of 5*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.* per cwt. in 1801, which was gradually increased to 8*l.* 8*s.* per cwt. in 1809, and continued till 1840, when it was increased, in common with all custom duties, five per cent. During the whole of this period the principle of protecting and fostering the colonies was adopted as the rule in fixing the duties on sugar. Our colonies made no refined sugar, and, therefore, there was no discriminating rate for the refined sugar of any country; but in the unrefined, or Muscovado, this principle was carried out to an extent varying according to the colonies to be favoured. From 1800 to 1824 the West Indies enjoyed the supremacy of protection; their Muscovado sugars being admitted at rates varying from 1*l.* to 1*l.* 10*s.* per cwt., while East India and Mauritius sugars were charged, during the years 1800, 1801, and 1802, with 3*s.* 2*d.* per cwt., and 42*l.* 16*s.* 3*d.* per cent. *ad valorem*, and subsequently with rated duties varying from 1*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.* to 1*l.* 17*s.* per cwt., and during the years 1804 to 1813 with further *ad valorem* rates, 1*l.* 4*s.*, 1*l.* 6*s.*, 1*l.* 7*s.*, and of 1*l.* per cent. But in 1825, Mauritius was admitted to fellowship with the West Indies, and their Muscovadoes were put at 1*l.* 7*s.*, per cwt., which was, in 1830, reduced to 1*l.* 4*s.*, with a further 5 per cent. in 1840. When Mauritius was separated from the East Indies as regarded the rating of her sugars, the sugars of India were left on the footing on which they had been placed in 1819, viz., 10*s.* per cwt. above the West India. In 1830 this difference of 10*s.* was reduced to 8*s.*, which, in 1836, was altogether abolished in respect of sugars the produce of a British possession in India into which the importation of foreign sugar was prohibited, but retained upon sugar produced in other Indian possessions if imported from thence. Foreign unrefined sugar was, during the whole period of these favoured duties for colonial produce, taxed with high rates, ranging from 1*l.* 14*s.* to 8*l.* 3*s.* per cwt., which totally excluded it, except in two or three years of great scarcity and dearth. In 1844 Sir Robert Peel's changes first took place. In that year he determined to effect a complete revolution in the sugar duties by breaking down the monopoly of the colonies, and introducing foreign sugars; by the 7th & 8th Vict. c. 28, July 1844, the then existing rates were continued till the 10th November of that year, and after that period the duty of 3*l.* 3*s.* and 5 per cent. charged upon all foreign sugar was repealed so far as regarded foreign unrefined

sugar, produced by free labour, which was admitted at 1*l*. 14*s*. per cent. and 5 per cent.; slave-grown foreign sugar being still charged at the former rate. The following year, 1845, a further and most important change of principle was introduced, by the adoption of a scale of graduated duties varying according to the quality of the sugar. Up to this period, all refined sugar had been charged with 8*l*. 8*s*. per cwt. without distinction of produce, and all unrefined had been subjected to one rate, according to the countries of its production. Considerable improvements had been introduced in the mode of manufacture both in colonial and foreign sugar, but the British consumer had been deprived of these advantages by the existing duties. In our own West India colonies, about the year 1833, a method had been introduced of boiling the cane juice *in vacuo*, by which a large, clear, and transparent crystal was obtained; but the Treasury decided, in June, 1833, that such sugar had undergone such a process of refinement as to render it inadmissible as Muscovado sugar, and that it was consequently liable to the duty of 8*l*. 8*s*. per cwt., which, of course, was prohibitory. In 1845 lower rates were introduced for colonial refined and candy, leaving the foreign still liable to the existing high rates. From the British possessions in America, Mauritius, and the East Indies, sugar equal to double refined was admitted at 1*l*. 1*s*. per cwt., not equal to double refined at 18*s*. 8*d*. per cwt.; candy brown at 1*l*. 6*s*. per cwt.; candy white at 1*l*. 15*s*. per cwt., and unrefined sugar was also divided into two classes, "equal to white clayed," and "not equal to white clayed," still retaining the differential rates according to production, but with diminished protection. Then, in 1846, free-trade principles were unrestrictedly introduced into the system of sugar duties, by abolishing immediately the distinction for free or slave labour, making direct importation the ground for a lower rate, and by prospectively and gradually reducing the difference of duty upon colonial and foreign by annual diminutions, until, in 1851, all were to be placed on the same footing in respect of duties. This Act also equalized the duty on double refined and candy. These duties continued in force till the 10th of July, 1848, when they were repealed and replaced by new and reduced duties, instituted by the 11 & 12 of Vict. c. 97. This Act made one rate only for all refined and candy, introduced a further distinction of quality for sugar, not the produce of, and imported from, British possessions, into which foreign sugar was prohibited, under the title of "not equal to brown clayed," and like the former, provided for the eventual equalization of foreign and colonial rates by annually diminishing the difference till it disappeared in July, 1854. Shortly before this equalization was to take place, the Russian war broke out, and the increased expenditure rendered necessary by that event rendered also increased taxation necessary, and it was determined to raise part of the increased revenue from sugar. On the 9th of May, 15 per cent. was added to the duties then existing on sugar, and, subsequently, the Act of 1854 instituted the system which at present exists of one scale, graduated according to quality, but applicable to all sugars of whatsoever growth, and whence-soever imported. The rates then established were:—Refined, from 5th July to 2nd August, 17*s*. 4*d*. per cwt.; from 2nd August, 16*s*. per cwt.; equal to white clayed, not equal to refined, 14*s*. per cwt.; equal to brown clayed, not equal to white clayed, 12*s*. per cwt., and not equal to brown clayed, 11*s*. per cwt. In the year following, 1855, the extent of the war expenditure calling for greater resources, the sugar duties were again increased. I need not state to what amount. Then after the war, in the

year 1857, the following rates were fixed upon sugar:—Refined and candy, 18s. 4d. per cwt.; equal to white clayed, 16s. per cwt.; equal to brown clayed, 13s. 10d. per cwt.; not equal to brown clayed, 12s. 8d. per cwt.: and those duties have been continued from that time to the present without any alteration: for the last two years I think it has become an annual tax, and has been voted by Parliament every year. In 1857 they were made permanent till March, 1860, when they were again renewed, and have been since continued to the present time. In 1857 sugar was imported in considerable quantities in a state before unknown in this country, under the name of "melado," as it is called by the Spanish planters of Cuba. It consists of the cane juice defecated and boiled down to a certain consistence, when, instead of being poured into pans, and allowed to separate by granulation into sugar and molasses, and to free itself of the latter by draining, the whole is turned into casks, bunged up and shipped. In the course of the voyage the natural separation into sugar and molasses takes place to a greater or less extent, according to the extent to which it has been boiled. This melado has been admitted at the rate of 10s. 4d. the cwt., provided it contains one-third of molasses. Molasses pay 5s. per cwt. I have a statement here of the quantity of cane juice imported into the United Kingdom: in the year 1861—it was 125,000 cwt., and the quantity of molasses was 1,294,000 cwt. That was the importation; I have not got the consumption.

With regard to the French duties previous to 1860, duty was charged on sugars entering France according to three distinguishing rates for quality, viz., refined—unrefined, equal to the first standard; or unrefined, inferior to the first standard; but by the law of May, 1860, the duty was charged only on refined and unrefined; the rates were then very considerably reduced, and were further reduced in 1861, when they were on sugar not refined and not equal to refined from French Guiana, and other colonies in America, per 100 kilos., 22 francs, or 9s. 2d. per cwt., in our money, with a navigation surtax of 20 francs, or 16s. 4d. per ton of freight for the 1000 kilos.; then from La Reunion, from Bourbon, the 100 kilos., 19 francs, or 7s. 11d. the cwt., and 30 francs, or 25s. per ton of freight for every 1000 kilos. From India, in French ships, by the 100 kilos., 30 francs, or 12s. 6d. the cwt.; in foreign ships, 32 francs, or 13s. 4d. the cwt. From other places out of Europe, in French ships, 30 francs, or 12s. 6d.; in foreign ships, 32 francs, or 13s. 4d.; from entrepôts, in any ships, 32 francs, or 13s. 4d.; and refined from French Guiana, and other colonies in America, 24 francs 50 centimes, or 10s. per cwt., and 20 francs, or 16s. 4d. a ton, of freight for 1000 kilos. From La Reunion, 21 francs 50 centimes, or 9s. a cwt., and 30 francs, or 25s. per ton of freight. From England, in French or British ships, as per treaty, 41 francs per 100 kilos., or 16s. 8d. per cwt. From all other places prohibited.

36. The duty, then, is combined with the charge in the nature of freight; but in the trade between England and France that is not imposed in conformity with the terms of the treaty: it appears that the duty on the refined sugars is 16s. 8d. between England and France, in round numbers, and 13s. 4d. on the unrefined.

The combination of the charge for freight with the charge for duty render it difficult to draw a comparison with regard to the absolute rate of duty. The surtax, called "Surtax de affrètement," is not the charge for freight, but a protective duty for the flag. Sugar from foreign countries is charged with one rate of duty, if imported in their own ships, and with

another and higher rate, if imported in foreign ships; but, upon sugar imported from the colonies in foreign ships, instead of such higher rates, the "Surtax de affrètement" so imposed, which is 20 or 30 francs, according to the exporting colony, for every ton for which the sugar pays freight; so that, if the importer pays freight for 100 tons, the "surtax" is paid upon that quantity. This surtax, therefore, is not the freight, but a protection for the flag or national ship.

The effect of that surtax or protective duty is to make a comparison of the absolute duties a somewhat complicated affair, as compared with the duties of another country; but it leaves the question quite free from complication in this respect, that the scale now in force in France is a scale of one rate for refined sugar and another rate for unrefined sugar, without making a distinction between unrefined sugars, which is the subject which has been referred to the consideration of this committee. There is but one scale for unrefined sugar. Then in the United States we have the Morrill tariff: raw sugar, Muscovado or brown, and syrup of sugar or sugar cane, and concentrated molasses or melado; they seem all to be put together in one head, $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ a lb., or about $11s. 8d.$ a cwt.; then white and clayed, or advanced beyond the raw state by claying, but not refined, the same; refined loaf, lump, crushed and pulverized, $2d.$ per lb., being $18s. 8d.$ per cwt., and when tintured, coloured, or in any way adulterated, and sugar candy, $4d.$ the lb. weight, being $37s. 4d.$ per cwt.; and molasses $3d.$ the gallon. In America, also, the distinction appears to be, as in France, between refined and unrefined. It appears that they divide unrefined sugar into two classes, and yet each class pays the same rate of duty. The next statement which I can give is with regard to Belgium, which is very complicated also; sugar-cane, raw from the Dutch colonies in the East Indies, by water from Holland, for the 220 lbs. weight, $1s. 11\frac{1}{2}d.$; direct from the country of production, or a port beyond the Cape of Good Hope, in Belgian vessels, for 220 lbs. weight, one-tenth of a penny; in foreign vessels, $1s. 4\frac{1}{2}d.$; from the Transatlantic non-productive countries, the 220 lbs. weight, $3s. 5d.$; in Belgian vessels, the 220 lbs., $1s. 4\frac{1}{2}d.$; in foreign vessels, the 220 lbs., $1s. 11\frac{1}{2}d.$ From elsewhere by sea, in Belgian vessels, the 220 lbs., $2s. 2\frac{1}{2}d.$; in foreign vessels, the 220 lbs., $3s. 5d.$; in any other way, prohibited; refined, or raw mixed with refined, the 220 lbs., $3l. 15s. 2\frac{1}{2}d.$; molasses of all sorts prohibited. It appears also that raw sugar pays, beside the import duty, also an excise duty of 35 francs and $\frac{1}{2}$ centime per 220 lbs., and when refined sugars, syrups (not molasses), and beet-root sugars have paid excise duty, that duty is returned at their exportation.

Then in Holland, raw and clayed sugar for the 220 lbs. weight is $4d.$; refined, for the 220 lbs., $3l.$; and refined and mixed with raw, for the 220 lbs., $3l.$

In the Zollverein, sugar refined and candy pays by the centner $1l. 10s.$; on raw and powdered sugar, the centner, $1l. 4s.$; raw, for refinement in the home manufactories, $15s.$, and molasses, $9s.$ The centner is equal to $110\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. avoirdupois.

The present import duty on sugar into Russia is, for raw sugar, 3 silver roubles the pood; refined, in loaves, 5 silver roubles; crushed and all but the above descriptions are prohibited. One silver rouble represents $35d.$ English, and 1 pood represents 36 lbs. weight.

Uniform Duties.—Mr. Travers anticipated great benefit from a simplifi-
[20]

cation of the rates, or a uniform scale; that the price of the superior raw sugars would be cheaper, and that the consumption would be larger. In his opinion the refiner would not suffer from a uniform scale, although causing the inferior sugar, now refined in this country, to be imported in a fit state for consumption. But though favourable to a uniform duty, Mr. Travers was not prepared to suggest what that duty should be. He expressed himself in favour of an uniform duty on all sugars, whether refined or unrefined.

Mr. Nelson was of opinion that the effect of a simplification or adjustment of the present duties would be to encourage the introduction of better sugars, and, by opening the trade, to increase the consumption. He thought that the present standard and duty for refined or fine sugar should be continued at 18s. 4d., and that there should be but one duty for unrefined or raw sugar. He asked for two rates, as an improvement on four or five rates.

Mr. Key, Mr. Arnould, Mr. Wright, Mr. Arbuthnot, and Mr. Kew, all contended for two duties only, as simpler and better. Mr. Nelson, on the other hand, stated that one duty only would be the more correct principle, and that the proposition of two duties is rather in the nature of a compromise. So did Mr. Stokes. Mr. Mackenzie, Mr. Arnaud, and Mr. Porter said that one fixed rate would be the simplest and most certain plan. Sir Thomas Freemantle stated that, with one uniform duty, Cuba and the Mauritius would have an advantage as against the West Indies; and that the effect of only one rate of duty upon unrefined sugar would be largely to exclude the importation of the inferior class of sugars. It would encourage the importation of the higher class of sugar, and discourage the import of the lower classes. Mr. Davis said that a uniform duty would be a benefit to the Mauritius and East Indian manufacturers of superior sugars, and would give them an unfair advantage in their rivalry with British refiners. He adverted to the presence of molasses in West India sugar, and showed that an uniform duty would press unequally and unjustly on such sugar, as compared with the better East Indian sugar. Mr. Farrie stated that the tendency of a uniform duty would be to cause producers of low sugar to send a better article, but that would be at the expense of a less quantity. Mr. Fryer stated that a uniform duty would exclude the lower sugars, and be prejudicial to the home refiner, without being beneficial to the consumer. Mr. Naghten said that the effect of a uniform duty would be to interfere with the natural course of things, or with the sending of West Indian sugar to this country in a crude state to be refined here. Mr. St. John said that considerable difficulty and dissatisfaction may be anticipated if there were an uniform duty of 13s. 2d. on unrefined sugar, and a duty of 18s. 4d. on refined sugar. Sir Thomas Freemantle said that injustice would be involved in an uniform rate of duty applicable to unrefined sugar imported in various forms.

Refining in Bond.—Mr. F. St. John gave evidence on this subject as follows:—

The tests for the protection of the revenue, under the system of refining in bond, were exceedingly unsatisfactory, and the only thing we could really rely upon was the attendance of the officers; and, altogether, it was both an unsatisfactory and expensive system. The results would never come out the same. We could not ascertain whether the refining was carried on satisfactorily from any results which we got from the produce that was made; we never could keep any thorough check upon it, inasmuch

as only one officer would be present at a time. The officer of customs knew the quantity of sugar that went into a refinery, and the quantity of product which came out of the refinery.

A custom-house officer was deputed to watch and to see, so far as he could, that no sugar, either before it was refined or after it was refined, found its way into domestic consumption. The duty of the officer was to keep a watch there, to receive the sugar that came in, and to weigh the product that went out again, and, so far as he could, to ascertain the result. Then there were superior officers (of whom I was, at one time, one) to check him; and in the execution of my duty there, I endeavoured, as a very large running account was kept from year to year without being balanced, to check the quantity, and to ascertain whether any sugar had been otherwise removed which was written off in the shape of waste. In fact, I found it impossible, and the account was obliged to run on till the refineries closed in 1854, when all the accounts were made up, and whatever the deficiencies were, our board had to write them off, whether they were satisfactory or not.

There was no test on which we could rely, in fact none whatever. You could not rely on the quantity, neither could you ascertain whether a fraud had been committed or not, until you came to the winding up at the end of the transaction; and, whatever your suspicions might have been, you could not point out any instance in which a fraud had been committed. I remember, on one occasion, where there was a large deficiency, we made what inquiry we could, and then we had to write that quantity off as loss.

During the time when that system was in operation, there was no test which was regarded as adequate; and our impression was that with a view to the revenue it was unsatisfactory. In 1854, that system was wound up.

When that system was wound up, the stock-taking took place. It was not a stock-taking, the quantity was wound up; it came to a close altogether. While the sugar house was open you could not take a satisfactory stock; then the refiners worked up what produce they had, and the duty was paid upon the products when they closed the working. No stock was attempted to be taken while they were working, and I feel sure that it could not be done. There being no stock-taking during the time that the working was going on, the effect of winding up was to bring us to the conclusion which we had sought in vain to obtain by stock-takings during the process.

I have been looking over the actual accounts kept, and I think I could give the results of the winding-up of several of the refineries at the time. I had, perhaps, better not give the names of the refineries; I had better call them No. 1, and so on. One refinery, which was the largest, went on refining from the year 1833 up to 1854, and during that time they refined 1,343,150 cwts. 2 qrs. and 2 lbs. of sugar, and I will give the result of that when they came to wind-up in 1854. I have the different quantities of each sort of produce that was made; they consisted of refined sugar, bastards, treacle, wet lumps, and white syrup. That left a loss at the end of that time of 25,837 cwt. 2 qrs. 2 lbs.; that was equal to $2\frac{1}{4}$ th per cent.; that was considered very reasonable, considering the large quantities, and no difficulties were made. That is No. 1 refinery. At No. 2 refinery, there were 62,000 cwts. refined; that commenced in 1853 and ended in

1854, lasting a very short time only. There the products were the same, except that they did not give white syrup; they delivered wet lumps and the other products, but the loss there was $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., being 1931 cwts. And at another refinery, which I will call No. 3, they commenced in 1848 and ceased in 1851, and then began again in the same year; they refined altogether 78,819 cwts., that was given out in the same products, and there was a loss of $2\frac{2}{3}$ ths per cent. And at another refinery, at a distance which I have marked No. 5, the loss was $2\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. Then, in another refinery, when it wound up, there was a loss of $9\frac{1}{3}$ per cent., and that refinery produced some rather curious results as to the quantities.

The last refinery, where the loss was so great, commenced on the 20th of February, and ended on the 30th of June, 1854; therefore, it worked a very short time, and only refined 16,863 cwts. of sugar. I will give the product of that; there were 289 cwts. of refined sugar, 7878 of bastards, 3477 of treacle, and then there was some brown Muscovado sugar (which was duty paid on the 13th of July, 1854), weighing 1655 cwts., and molasses at the same time weighing 1191 cwts., and there was obliged to be made an allowance of water upon that, equal to 826 cwts., and besides that, there was a loss of 344 cwts. for waste, that is, equal to 9 per cent., not including the water, because the officers saw there was water there, and allowed for it, altogether that would have made nearly 13 per cent. of actual loss upon it. There was an inquiry made about it at the time; it was not satisfactory; in looking over the papers, I see the officers said there was a great deal of sand and dirt, so there was nothing to be done for it but to wind up the affair.

Upon the whole, the result in that case was that we wound up the case, not having any evidence satisfactory to ourselves as to whether the whole duty had been actually paid or not. We assumed that it had been, and there was nothing to induce us to recommend that anybody should be prosecuted, although the transaction had taken place in so short a time; our own officers were present, and had no suspicion. Although the assumption was that everything was correct, the evidence fell far short, in our judgment, of being satisfactory. Those are the accounts from the refineries which I have given.

The process would depend with the manufacturer, upon what sort of sugar it was his intention to make, but the results given are very important indeed. We had, before we commenced, some inquiries made, as to what ought to be the product of refined sugar; and this is an extract from the official papers, which I believe, has been prepared by Dr. Ure, who was at the time consulted as to what should be the product of a cwt. of ordinary British plantation sugar when refined; he gives 68 lbs. of refined sugar of all sorts, 19 lbs. of bastards, 18 lbs. of molasses, and 5 lbs. of waste, making the 112 lbs.; the actual result is shown by the working out of these quantities; refinery No. 1 produced 61 lbs. of refined sugar, 13 lbs. of bastards, 20 lbs. of treacle, 2 lbs. of wet lumps, and one-tenth of white syrup, and 2 lbs. of loss for every 100 lbs.; No. 2, produced only 5 lbs. of refined sugar, instead of the contemplated 68 lbs., 35 lbs. of bastards, 36 lbs. of treacle, 17 lbs. of wet lumps, and 2 lbs. taken out as raw sugar again, and 3 lbs. of loss; refinery No. 3, produced 67 lbs. of refined sugar, 15 lbs. of bastards, 13 lbs. of treacle, 1 lb. of white lumps, and 2 lbs. of loss; No. 4, produced 60 lbs. of refined sugar, 12 lbs. of bastards, 22 lbs. of treacle, and 4 lbs. of loss; No. 5, produced 1 lb. only of refined sugar,

46 lbs. of bastards, 20 lbs. of treacle, 16 lbs. of raw sugar, 5 lbs. of water, and 9 lbs. of loss out of every 100 lbs.

Looking at those figures, the result was exceedingly various, as to the produce that resulted from a cwt. of sugar in the different refineries. There is no doubt that each refiner manufactured in the way which he thought would produce the largest profit; I do not suppose they all tried to make the same quality; no doubt they did not.

That being the case, it would be more difficult for you to form an accurate idea of the result which ought to be produced if a given number of cwts. go into the refinery, than it would be if the mode of manufacture were more uniform and the results more uniform. It depends, for one thing, upon the part of the kingdom in which it is made; there are different products, according to the different places of sale; it is impossible to get a uniform system. The want of uniformity in the operations of the trade creates an additional difficulty to the officer of the customs, in judging by the refined product whether all the sugar which has gone into a bonded refinery as raw sugar has ultimately paid duty. I hold it to be utterly impossible for him to say what he ought to have; he cannot know. In those statements which I have given you, where it should be recollected that all went in as dry sugar, a great deal of the products came out in the shape of treacle, which would contain a great deal of water.

I hold it to be entirely impossible to carry on any system of refining in bond that would give a satisfactory security to the revenue; in fact it will appear so from some papers and plans which I have here, and which I shall be happy to show to the committee, of one or two of the refineries which had been approved; they would show how difficult it is to keep a watch.

If refining in bond were allowed for home consumption, the difficulties would be very greatly increased; we should have to add greatly to the number of officers to take charge of the arrangements, inasmuch as under the former system anything that was taken away, except for shipment, would excite suspicion; but in the present case there would be always carts loading, and you would therefore always require officers to attend, and to take account of the quantities of sugar going in on the one side, and you would require men about the floors to see that the sugar was properly going through the processes, and you must also have officers to attend to the delivery on the other side, which, I apprehend, as the refiners deal with grocers and various other parties, would be very often of small quantities; so that, compared with the old system, when the sugar was chiefly taken in large quantities for exportation, the difficulties would be very much increased in every way.

Memorandum on the Scale of Duties on Sugar, 31st March, 1862.

THE existing scale of duties on sugar, with the relative standards, was settled after much inquiry and consideration; and, although there was at first some difficulty in working the system, it soon became well understood, and is now regarded with very general satisfaction, as imposing the tax on sugar more equitably than any previous arrangement.

It appears, indeed, from a petition recently presented to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, that some parties connected with India, Mauritius, and Cuba, allege that the scale operates to discourage the preparation of

superior sugar for this market, and it is understood that they have suggested the abolition of the rate of 16s. chargeable under the denomination of white-clayed, as being excessive in comparison with the other rates in the scale. The fact is, however, that the ordinary sorts are still required to pay more duty in proportion to the sugar they contain, than those which are equal to white-clayed; and, inasmuch as these ordinary sorts constitute the greater part of the whole quantity taken for home consumption, they have the first claim for concession if the Chancellor of the Exchequer should be induced to reconsider the scale. Before it was settled in its present form these ordinary sorts of sugar were even more disproportionately taxed, and the West India Committee, with a view to the correction of this evil, had urged the adoption of refining in bond. The nearer approximation to just proportions, which was effected by the new scale, afforded some relief from the oppressive inequality of the tax, and that proposal has latterly not been pressed. But, if the question should be re-opened, and an attempt made to disturb the relations between the different descriptions of sugar to the further disadvantage of the ordinary sorts, it would become absolutely necessary for the West India Committee to use every means in their power to direct attention to the justice of their claim to be permitted to refine sugar in bond.

The petitioners seem to object to any scale, and to argue in favour of one rate for every variety of sugar, without reference to refining in bond. When it is considered that this variety is expressed, according to the latest prices current, exclusive of duty, by quotations of 44s. for the best refined, and 16s. for the lowest unrefined sugar, the absurdity of such a proposal will be apparent. This variation in the market value of sugar does not arise, as do the variations in the value of tea and coffee, from an essential difference in the quality of sugar, but from variations in the component parts of the articles sold under that term. The highest quotation of 44s. represents the purest sugar obtainable in the London market; the quotation of 16s. represents a compound of sugar, treacle, and dirt, but the crystallizable sugar it contains is of equal quality with the best, and only requires to be separated.

It may be presumed that these varieties of sugar are sent to this country in the form which the several growers find to be most compatible with the circumstances in which they are placed. The adoption of one rate of duty on every compound called sugar would, of course, act as a prohibition against all but refined. The ordinary mixtures known as Muscovado would of necessity be sent to the adjacent countries on the Continent, in foreign ships, for the purpose of undergoing refinement, and subsequent transmission to this country.

Many other parties, including the greatest of all, the consumers, are concerned in the refinement of sugar in bond; and this measure is recommended by considerations of national importance, for it is eminently fitted to give freedom and extension to the sugar trade. The revenue is also concerned in its adoption; for, contrary to an apprehension which has sometimes been expressed, the tendency would be to prepare refined sugar at a cheaper rate, and consequently to extend the consumption. A very large proportion of all the sugar consumed in this country, perhaps, 350,000 tons, already passes through the refineries, but the proportion would be greatly augmented, and refined sugar would probably supersede every other description; whilst it is obvious that the enormous adultera-

tion of brown sugar, which is now so injurious both to the revenue and the poorer consumer, would thus be rendered impossible.

West India Committee Rooms, Walbrook House, London.

Report of the Committee of the Chamber of Agriculture appointed to examine the Question of the Differential Duties on Sugar.

1. The Chamber of Agriculture have often called the attention of the different Secretaries of State to the necessity of a prompt revision of the law which establishes a scale of differential duties on sugar as unfair in principle, as it is difficult and vexatious in practice; but to the present time their representations have not been successful, and no reasons have been given by the Government for maintaining a legislation so opposed to the great principles of commercial freedom.

2. The same silence was not observed towards the colonists when they protested against the assimilation of the duties on sugar from all countries without distinction, whether the produce of slave or free labour. The Government then declared that the time for protection to commerce or industry was past; that each country ought to be left to its own resources; that the interest of the consumer should take precedence of all others; and that the British colonies, instead of looking for protective duties, must apply themselves to the improvement of their manufacture, and endeavour to produce as cheap as slave colonies.

3. In presence of these formal declarations this colony was obliged to accept the struggle with foreign possessions, however unequal it then appeared; but it hoped, at the same time, that the government, from a sentiment of good faith and justice, would lose no time in repealing the differential duties on sugars of different qualities.

4. This hope appeared to be on the eve of realization when his grace the Duke of Newcastle, who at that time occupied, as he does now, the office of Secretary of State for the Colonies, addressed a despatch to Governor Higginson on 17th May, 1853, requesting the opinion of the inhabitants of this colony on the propriety of revising the law on the differential duties, a question, said the Secretary of State, which has been brought prominently to my notice by Sir H. Barkly, Governor of Jamaica.

5. The despatch to Governor Higginson enclosed a copy of a letter from the Board of Trade, which, on being consulted by the Duke of Newcastle, replied in the following terms:—

“To strike with a superior duty of one pound of sugar which, by a better mode of manufacture, contains more saccharine matter than another pound obtained for the same raw material, is to inflict direct discouragement upon improvement.”

6. On pressing these documents to the Legislative Council, Governor Higginson, convinced that differential duties had seen their day, publicly congratulated the colony on the event.

7. The Legislative Council, called in its turn to give an opinion on the 21st October, 1853, unanimously adopted the report of a committee formed from its body, which concluded in the following terms:—

“The committee entirely concur in the opinions expressed by the Lords of the Committee of the Privy Council for Trade, and by Governor Barkly, with reference to the injurious influence of the duties in question on the improvement of the manufacture of sugar in the colonies.”

8. Everything then tended to encourage the hope in the minds of the colonists that an era of liberty was about to commence for their branch of industry.

9. Under this impression, and having in view the struggle to be sustained against foreign colonies by the equalisation of the sugar duties fixed for 1854, they made enormous sacrifices for the improvement of the manufacture of their sugar. According to the customs returns, the estimated value of machinery for the manufacture of sugar imported in 1852, 1853, and 1854, was as follows:—1852, 13,761*l.*; 1853, 31,210*l.*; 1854, 87,902*l.*

10. It is easy to conceive, after what has been said, how great was the disappointment and discouragement of our planters when they suddenly learnt that on the 9th of May of that same year, 1854, the Right Hon. Mr. Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer, far from improving the state of things, had asked and obtained from Parliament, a measure which rendered the position of the colony worse than before; the duties on sugar were to be levied on no less than four classes. This decision, the most unfortunate that could be imagined, as regarded colonial industry, would have rendered useless all the sacrifices made at that time for the improvement of the quality of our produce, if France and Australia, finding we were making superior sugars, had not taken part of their supplies from this market. It cannot be denied that these two countries prevented Mauritius from retrograding, after having boldly entered the path of progress.

11. The division of sugar into four classes paying 12*s.* 8*d.*, 13*s.* 10*d.*, 16*s.*, and 18*s.* 4*d.*, is an obstacle to all progress. Experience has proved it in the most positive manner. Who does not perceive in reading these figures, that it is impossible for the colonial producer, under the present legislation, to make any progress without being deprived, by an extra duty, of the advantage resulting from improved manufacture.

12. Was it an *ad valorem* duty that it was intended to establish? That an *ad valorem* duty can be justified, at least the difference of price between two sugars should be in proportion to the difference of duty paid. In practice, this does not occur. Experience, for instance, has proved that sugar paying a duty of 16*s.* often obtains in England but 6*d.* to 1*s.* above sugars paying 13*s.* 10*d.* An inquiry would establish this fact without difficulty. Consequently the division of sugar into four classes for the fixation of an *ad valorem* duty is not founded on an equitable basis.

13. On the other hand, what can be more arbitrary and more uncertain than the principle of an *ad valorem* duty dependent on the colour of a sugar? How can the just limit be established between the colour which is to pay one, and the colour which is to pay another duty? The Custom-house officer is thus left sole arbiter to fix the duty. One officer in cloudy weather will class the same sugar differently from his colleague who will examine it in sunshine. Two parcels of the same quality will be taxed 16*s.* in London, and 13*s.* 10*d.* in Liverpool. This happens frequently. What is remarkable is, that the better the sugar, the greater the uncertainty, the doubt, the error, and the contradiction in the classification.

14. So irrational a law cannot but lead to bad results. As a proof, the purchasers for the British market never buy sugars that are above the classification paying 13*s.* 10*d.* If by chance a purchaser buys sugar paying 16*s.* duty, he calculates his purchase on a difference of only 1*s.* or even 6*d.* above the price of sugar paying 13*s.* 10*d.*; as the difference of duty, 2*s.* 2*d.*,

it naturally follows that he can only purchase the finer qualities at a price actually less than the sugars paying 13s. 10d.

15. There are those who, being ashamed of this legislation, endeavour to explain it by pretending the question of commercial liberty comes into conflict with the question of revenue. The difficulty according to them is how to touch the legislation on sugar without endangering the resources of the imperial treasury.

16. The committee do not look on the matter in the same way. There is no question of reduction of duty. The colony has nothing to say against the enormous sum levied on sugar consumed in England. However hard it may be for Mauritius to see an article, its only production and one of universal consumption, taxed for 6,000,000*l.*, it does not murmur as the consumer is more directly concerned. What is claimed by the producer in Mauritius is a change in the manner of establishing this duty. Where is the danger if the same amount were to be levied by means of one uniform duty?

17. It must not be concealed that the interest which was thought in danger, and the interest which it was intended to protect by these differential duties, was that of the refiner. But has not the colony the right to invoke against this protection accorded to refiners the great principles of commercial liberty, in the name of which were abolished the duties that protected the British colonies from the competition of foreign colonies? It is now seven years ago since the protective duties, established originally for the benefit of colonial industry, have disappeared, and yet the colony has been always condemned to produce only inferior raw sugar for the benefit of British refineries. This is not just; it is not consistent; it is not worthy of the British government.

18. If that full commercial liberty which is commanded by justice cannot be accorded, the government ought at least to remedy the injury inflicted on the colonist by a more equitable arrangement of the scale of duties. The example of France ought to inspire it with confidence, and enlighten it in this respect. Need we mention that the refineries of Paris, Havre, Nantes, Bordeaux, and Marseilles, are in full prosperity under a legislature which divides sugar into two classes only.

19. The committee go still further, and think that the British refiner himself would gain by a change in accordance with the system adopted in France. At the present time he cannot procure the raw material so cheap as the French refiner, as the latter purchases in this colony the finest sugars which pay 16s. duty in England, at the same price as the British refiner pays for inferior quality which pays 13s. 10d. in England.

20. For all these reasons, the committee confidently recommend the Chamber of Agriculture to solicit the repeal of the present differential duties on sugar, which have proved so prejudicial to the agricultural interests of this colony. No time could be more opportune than the present, when the British public are beginning to perceive the injustice done to themselves as well as to the colonial sugar producer by retaining these duties, and when the policy of maintaining them is again about to be discussed in the British Parliament.

(Signed)

C. ANTELME,
Chairman of the Committee.

Port Louis, 12th November, 1861.

Report on Sugar Refining in Bond, dated 1st August, 1848.

HONOURABLE SIRS,—From what we have seen of the ordinary working of a sugar refinery, we do not think it practicable to establish a survey for the purpose of taking an account of the liquor or syrup in the several stages of operation without materially interfering with and fettering the refiner's operations; but we are of opinion the duty on raw and other sugars when manufactured into refined and bastard sugars and treacle may be secured by the following regulations:—

1st. Before a refiner be allowed to work foreign or foreign and colonial sugars for home consumption, he shall deliver an entry stating the quantity the house is capable of refining in one week.

2nd. All sugars to be delivered from a duty-free warehouse. No greater quantity to be delivered in any week than the house is capable of refining, and the refiner to be debited with the quantity delivered to him.

3rd. No refiner to have more than three weeks' supply of sugar on hand; this supply to include the sugar syrups and other products in process.

4th. A certain time to be allowed for the refining of a given quantity of sugar, and the products of the sugar to be returned into bond.

5th. Two bonded warehouses, at least, to be provided, one for depositing the sugar, &c., intended for home consumption, the other for depositing for exportation.

6th. When a refiner deposits refined sugar, &c., in such bonded warehouses, he shall give a written declaration, stating from what description of sugar it was made, and whether intended for home consumption or exportation, and the sugar to be deposited accordingly.

7th. When the whole of the sugar delivered in any week is refined and deposited, the refiner to give a written declaration of the quantities made from foreign, clayed, and muscovado sugar respectively, and what portion of such refined sugar is intended for home consumption or exportation, such declaration to be held binding on the refiner, and the duty allowed on the exportation, or charged on delivery for home consumption accordingly. Penalty for untrue declaration.

8th. For every 112 lbs. of raw sugar delivered, the refiner to be required to produce a certain quantity of refined and bastard sugars and treacle (upon the data which the customs appear to possess, this is 42 lbs. of double refined, 26 lbs. of single refined, 21 lbs. of bastard sugar, and 19 lbs. of treacle, 4 lbs. being allowed for waste, or 68 lbs. of single refined, 21 lbs. of bastard, and 19 lbs. of treacle, 4 lbs. being allowed for waste).

Under the proposed regulations, the refiner will be debited with the quantity of each kind of sugar received from the bonded warehouse, and must produce a certain amount of refined and bastard sugars and treacle, which, with the limited amount of waste, must equal the amount of raw sugar delivered, and the proper duties being levied on these various products will realise the duty on the raw sugar.

It will be seen the refiner could have no object in substituting one kind of sugar for another in his declarations, for were he (having credit in the revenue books) to send for exportation 100 tons of sugar declared to be refined foreign sugar, although made from British, he would gain no advantage, because he must keep for home consumption a like quantity of foreign, in order that the balance of his stock might be correct.

(Signed) WILLIAM MILSON MOXON, } S. G. Examiners.
1st August, 1848. GEORGE PHILLIPS, }

Report on Sugar Refining under Bond, dated 22nd December, 1848.

Having had an opportunity of seeing the process of sugar refining at four refining houses in London, we now proceed to offer a few observations on the practicability of establishing a system of survey, under which the sugar duty could be secured by an equivalent charge on the refined products; but in order that the bearing of these remarks may be more distinctly seen, we beg to submit, first, a brief account of the process.

The raw sugar is emptied from the original package into a cistern, where it is mixed with water, a small quantity of blood or other albuminous substance, and occasionally with lime water; the mass is heated by steam until all the sugar is dissolved and partially clarified. The syrup is then conveyed to a range of filters, formed of bags of coarse cotton cloth, from which it passes into a second cistern, perfectly freed from all feculent matter, but of a reddish brown colour. This brown transparent syrup is then carried by pipes to a filter of animal charcoal, through which it percolates slowly into a third cistern, and is then nearly colourless.

The next step is the concentration of the clarified syrup, which is generally effected by Howard's vacuum pan. From the pan it passes into an open granulating vessel, and from thence it is carried to inverted conical moulds, arranged on the floor in rows. After the syrup has become in some measure solid the moulds are each placed, apex downwards, upon a jar into which any uncrystallized syrup in the mould is allowed to drain, and the loaves are further purified by causing a saturated solution of sugar in water to percolate through each. When sufficiently dry, the base of the loaf is scraped to an even surface, and the top is applied to a kind of lathe, in which any part that is damp or discoloured is cut off in such a manner that the loaf retains its conical shape, and the end is left white and smooth.

The coarser loaves, instead of being turned, have the damp ends chopped off, so as to reduce them to the form of truncated cones, and the process is finished by drying the loaves in a stove heated to 130° or 140° F. The finer syrups which have run from the loaves are passed through filters, and used in certain proportions in subsequent boilings of the syrup from raw sugar. The coarser syrups, or refuse, are collected and formed into coarse loaves called bastards, and the syrup which drains from these coarse loaves, being incapable of further crystallization, is called treacle.

Such is an outline of the process, and any approach to a system of survey which will check fraud, secure the duty, and protect the honest trader, requires—1st. An exact account of raw materials. 2nd. Means of raising a presumptive charge at different stages. 3rd. Means of stock-taking. 4th. Means of obtaining an exact account of the quantity and quality of the refined sugar delivered for home use, or deposited in a customs' warehouse for exportation.

Whether these or any of them are attainable without imposing restrictions of such a nature as would more than counterbalance any benefit the scheme offers to the refiner, is the subject of inquiry.

The first point is of easy attainment; an account of the weight and quality could be sent with each parcel of sugar delivered from the customs' warehouses, which would enable the officer at the refining house to keep an exact account of the raw sugar received; but this regulation, simple as it looks, involves the constant attendance of an officer at the refinery; or the

trader must be bound to give a certain number of hours' notice before he receives any sugar.

The second point is the means of raising a presumptive charge at different stages of the process. The charge must either be raised from the quantity of raw sugar dissolved, or from the quantity and gravity of the syrup when it has passed through the filters; and it would be necessary to the proper working of the regulation, that notice should be given of each boiling, of the particular casks or other packages of sugar to be used, and that each operation should be kept distinct until it is finished. It is scarcely necessary, however, to pursue this subject further, as the enforcement of such regulations would subject the refiner to extensive alterations of his premises, considerable interference with the process of manufacture, and large increase of expense.

The very nature of a presumptive charge also implies that it is possible to calculate the quantity of refined sugar obtainable from any given quantity of raw sugar, or from any given quantity of syrup of a known gravity; but the most experienced refiners state that it would be difficult to approach to accuracy in predicting the probable produce.

The third point, viz., the means of stock-taking, seems to be equally unattainable. The processes are continually going on, and the materials are found in every possible form, and in a vast number of separate quantities; for instance, there would always be raw sugar, syrups, brown and clear, loaves, in various stages of purity and dryness; bastards of many different kinds, and thousands of jars, each containing a small quantity of syrup or treacle. But the difficulty of stock-taking is apparent, from the fact that some refiners do not take stock, and those who are more accurate in their accounts, find it necessary to suspend their works for two or three weeks for that purpose.

With respect to the fourth point, viz., the means of obtaining an exact account of the quantity and quality of the refined products sent from the refinery, there are also many difficulties.

A scale of duty ranging from the finest loaf to the coarsest brown bastard would be required, and an officer always on the spot, capable of applying that scale with unfailing accuracy to every shade of colour. This arrangement would not be satisfactory to the trade, and it would not afford sufficient security to the revenue. A refiner, it is true, might be required to deposit all the products in warehouse, but if the warehouse be on the premises, the officer in attendance would still be the sole judge of the quality; and if the goods were required to be sent to a public warehouse, where a number of qualified officers and brokers might have an opportunity of determining the rate of duty payable, objections would be raised by the refiners on account of the damage the goods might sustain in the removal, or from imperfect stowage, and the additional expense of weighing, cartage, and delivery, which would be incurred.

It thus appears, that of the four points which we consider essential to an effective survey, the three last cannot be obtained, viz., the proportion of refined producible from any given quantity of raw sugar; a frequent and accurate account of the stock, and satisfactory means of estimating the quantity and quality of the various refined products sent from the refinery.

We are therefore not aware by what means the duty could be levied on

the refined products with security to the revenue, unless the refiner be subjected to much additional expense and many harassing restrictions.

We are, &c.,

(Signed) JAMES STEEL, } S. G. Exrs.
THOS. DOBSON, }
ADAM YOUNG, *Supr.*
CHARLES B. FORSEY, *Offr.*

To John Wood, Esq.,
Chairman, &c., Dec. 22, 1848.

Memorandum on Refining Sugar in Bond, dated May 3, 1862.

The privilege of refining sugar in bond for exportation was in operation for many years, and the only conclusion that can be drawn from the experience then obtained is, that the concession was unreasonably expensive to the Crown and comparatively of small value to the trade, almost every firm that tried it having, after a time, abandoned it. The expense to the Crown may be taken to have been from 200*l.* to 350*l.* per annum for each refinery, according to the salaries of the officers at the port.

The object for which the privilege was originally granted was not to confer any boon on the West Indian trade, but, on the contrary, to counteract the effect of the protection afforded to that branch of the sugar trade, by permitting the refiner to use foreign sugars in the preparation of his goods for foreign markets, and so to enable him to compete with the foreigner on equal terms.

To open foreign markets to our refiners, the system of bounties or drawbacks was first resorted to, but as it was impossible to say from what sugar the refined had been made, so long as there was a differential duty on sugars, the produce of different countries, it was necessary that the duty drawn back on exportation should not exceed the lowest rate payable on importation, and accordingly the amount of drawback was made equivalent only to the lower or colonial import rates, which left the refiner who used the sugars liable to the higher or foreign rate, minus the difference of duty, and as this difference was formerly very considerable, it became a complete prohibition as regarded the use of such sugars for refining, except when the price in any particular market might be exorbitantly high.

The system of drawback thus failing to admit our refiners into the foreign markets, the only alternative left was to admit foreign sugars to be used in refining for exportation under such restrictions as might secure the Crown from any loss. To effect this object an Act was passed (in 1828), 9 Geo. IV., c. 93, which permitted limited quantities of foreign sugar, or sugar the produce of the East Indies, to be taken for refinement upon payment of 27*s.* per cwt. duty (the amount then levied on British plantation, muscovado, and clayed sugar), and an increased rate of 1*s.* for every 3*s.* above the average price of West India sugar, on bond being given that the whole of such sugar should be subjected to the refining process, and that the products should be exported or deposited for exportation in a regular bonded warehouse, within four months, according to the following scale; viz.—For every cwt. of raw sugar not exceeding the average price of West Indian, 61 lbs. refined, in loaves or lumps; 18 lbs. bastards; 28 lbs. treacle. These quantities to fluctuate for every shilling of value above

such average price as follows; viz.—3 lbs. more of refined; 1 lb. less bastards; 2 lbs. less treacle. And upon exportation or delivery into warehouse the duty so paid was to be returned; but no merchant was allowed to have in his possession at any one time more than 1000 cwts. for every pan actually at work on the premises.

In 1833, the Act of 3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 61, permitted the delivery, duty free, of any quantity of foreign sugars into bonded refineries, approved for the purpose, there to be refined and afterwards exported in the various states of the products of such process, viz., refined, bastards, and treacle, and this privilege was continued by subsequent Acts up to the year 1854.

Several firms at different times availed themselves of the privilege in the port of London, but the number was reduced to one in 1854.

All differential duties on sugar (as regards produce) having ceased in 1854, the object for which this privilege was originally conceded no longer existed, and it was accordingly withdrawn in that year by the 17 & 18 Vict., c. 29; and it may be presumed that drawback on exportation is amply sufficient to meet the exigencies of the case as regards foreign markets, and as the refiner has the opportunity thus afforded him of taking his goods either into the home or export market, there does not appear to be any good or sufficient reason for renewing the privilege of refining in bond, far less for extending it to sugar refined for the home market. The only advantage which could accrue to the refiner from such extension being less demand upon his capital, as he would not be required to pay duty on the sugar intended for the home market until it had been actually refined and sold, and he would be saved the necessity of paying duty at all on what he exported, in lieu of advancing the duty on the sugar when cleared from the docks, and getting it repaid in case of exportation, the interval between which may be some weeks; but this advantage, by which the public generally would not benefit in any way, could only be obtained by an immense expense for the attendance of the officers necessary to protect the revenue.

A differential duty in favour of West Indian sugar might certainly prove advantageous to that interest by inducing the refiner to take advantage of the lower cost; but it is difficult to see how West Indian sugar could be benefited by allowing the refining in bond, where all sugars by being taken in the first instance without duty are put upon the same footing, and seeing that the clayed sugars are said to be so far superior for this process.

The refining of sugar in bond differs most materially from the system of allowing imported merchandize generally to be deposited in bonded warehouses. In the latter case the exact quantities are all taken to account, and those quantities must be shown on delivery, and the stocks can always be checked in the warehouse,—the law compelling the warehouse-keeper to produce any package or parcel of goods the officers may at any time call for, under a penalty of 5*l.* per package if failing to do so. Such warehouses are also open only during a few hours of the day, in many places being kept locked excepting during deliveries, and at all others they are closed at the end of the official hours, so that one officer can attend to several warehouses; but with sugar refineries it is quite different, although the exact quantities allowed to be received in bond might be taken account of, still as all the packages are, on receipt, immediately emptied into the pans, and as different sugars will yield different products, and even different

refiners will produce different results from the same quality of sugar, there can be no other means of securing the Crown from fraud than keeping a constant and strict watch over the premises from the time of receiving the raw sugar, until the whole is refined and delivered; and as the process of refining is continued night and day, a relay of officers is necessary, so as never to leave the premises unguarded, and hence the great expense to the Crown.

As the sugar houses are generally situated at a distance from the landing places both in London and at the outports, such supervision would require a distinct body of officers for the especial purpose, and as the duties required of them would be altogether more in consonance with those usually performed by the Inland Revenue than by the Customs, it has been deemed fit that, if the system of refining in bond for home consumption should ever be permitted, it should be placed under the control and supervision of the Inland Revenue department.

In the usual bonding warehouses the advantages are public, as any merchant may avail himself of them; but in sugar refineries the proprietor alone can derive any benefit or profit from the indulgence, and there does not appear to be any valid reason peculiar to the sugar trade, why the country at large should be burdened with such heavy expenses solely for the individual profit and advantage of the members of any one class of traders, more particularly as the majority of refiners do not wish it, as they feel that the system of survey to which, for the protection of the revenue, they must necessarily be subject, would be so objectionable and vexatious as to counterbalance any advantage they might derive from the system.

Custom House, May 3, 1862.

SUGAR, 1801-1861.

AN ACCOUNT showing the Quantity of SUGAR annually Consumed in the UNITED KINGDOM, with the Average Rate and Aggregate Amount of DUTY collected thereon; also the AVERAGE PRICE, inclusive and exclusive of the Duty, and the Average Quantity Consumed by each Individual of the Population, from 1801 to 1861 inclusive.

	Quantity of Sugar Consumed in the United Kingdom.	Net Revenue accruing from Sugar, after the Deduction of Drawbacks and Bounties on Sugar Exported.	Average Rate of Duty per Cwt. paid by the Consumer.	Average Price per Cwt. in Bond.	Average Price per Cwt. Inclusive of Duty.	Population of the United Kingdom.	Average Quantity consumed by each Individual of the Population.
—	Cwts.	£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		Lbs.
Annual average of 14 years:— 1801-1814	2,847,519	3,362,702	1 6 2	2 8 1	3 14 3	17,256,000	18
Single years:—							
1815 ...	2,523,326	3,454,412	1 10 7	3 1 10	4 12 5	19,118,000	15
1816 ...	2,835,396	3,612,715	1 9 2	2 8 7	3 17 9	19,463,000	16
1817 ...	3,680,692	4,434,051	1 7 1	2 9 8	3 16 9	19,772,000	21
1818 ...	2,122,760	2,751,169	1 10 1	2 10 0	4 0 1	20,076,000	12
1819 ...	3,111,018	3,996,589	1 8 8	2 1 4	3 10 0	20,398,000	17

SUGAR DUTIES.

279

SUGAR DUTIES—continued.

	Quantity of Sugar Consumed in the United Kingdom.	Net Revenue accruing from Sugar, after the Deduction of Drawbacks and Bounties on Sugar Exported.	Average Rate of Duty per Cwt. paid by the Consumer.	Average Price per Cwt. in Bond.	Average Price per Cwt. inclusive of Duty.	Population of the United Kingdom.	Average Quantity consumed by each Individual of the Population.
Single years :—	Cwts.	£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		Lbs.
1820 ...	3,275,959	3,925,481	1 7 3	1 16 2	3 3 5	20,705,000	18
1821 ...	3,412,245	4,188,997	1 7 4	1 13 2	3 0 6	20,985,000	18
1822 ...	3,182,929	4,060,544	1 7 5	1 11 0	2 18 5	21,320,000	17
1823 ...	3,466,209	4,407,476	1 7 4	1 12 11	3 0 3	21,672,000	18
1824 ...	3,591,157	4,641,997	1 7 5	1 11 6	2 18 11	21,991,000	18
1825 ...	3,271,388	4,176,673	1 7 4	1 18 6	3 5 10	22,304,000	16
1826 ...	3,788,507	4,951,071	1 7 5	1 10 7	3 18 0	22,605,000	19
1827 ...	3,539,865	4,650,224	1 7 2	1 15 9	3 2 11	22,893,000	17
1828 ...	3,879,257	5,002,338	1 7 3	1 11 8	2 18 11	23,200,000	19
1829 ...	3,809,710	4,896,271	1 7 4	1 8 7	2 15 11	23,535,000	18
1830 ...	4,057,229	4,767,374	1 5 10	1 4 11	2 10 9	23,834,000	19
1831 ...	4,076,253	4,650,606	1 4 2	1 3 8	2 7 10	24,083,000	19
1832 ...	3,879,810	4,394,352	1 4 2	1 7 8	2 11 10	24,343,000	18
1833 ...	3,766,411	4,414,346	1 4 2	1 9 8	2 13 10	24,561,000	17
1834 ...	3,928,561	4,559,418	1 4 3	1 9 5	2 13 8	24,820,000	18
1835 ...	4,022,850	4,667,920	1 4 2	1 13 5	2 17 7	25,104,000	18
1836 ...	3,593,144	4,184,209	1 4 1	2 0 10	3 4 11	25,390,000	16
1837 ...	4,048,665	4,760,576	1 4 0	1 14 7	2 18 7	25,676,000	18
1838 ...	4,021,246	4,656,912	1 4 0	1 13 8	2 17 8	25,895,000	17
1839 ...	3,830,393	4,586,936	1 4 0	1 19 2	3 3 2	26,201,000	16
1840 ...	3,594,412	4,449,070	1 5 2	2 9 1	3 14 3	26,519,000	15
1841 ...	4,057,900	5,114,390	1 5 2	1 19 8	3 4 10	26,730,000	17
1842 ...	3,868,474	4,874,812	1 5 2	1 16 11	3 2 1	27,006,000	16
1843 ...	4,028,326	5,076,326	1 5 2	1 13 9	2 18 11	27,283,000	17
1844 ...	4,129,449	5,203,270	1 5 2	1 13 8	2 18 10	27,577,000	17
1845 ...	4,856,680	5,574,471	0 14 9	1 12 8	2 7 5	27,875,000	20
1846 ...	5,238,656	3,896,780	0 14 11	1 13 2	2 8 1	28,189,000	21
1847 ...	5,805,638	4,405,237	0 15 2	1 7 8	2 2 10	28,093,000	23
1848 ...	6,188,487	4,557,337	0 14 9	1 3 5	1 18 2	27,855,000	25
1849 ...	5,980,824	3,912,170	0 13 1	1 5 2	1 18 3	27,632,000	24
1850 ...	6,207,827	3,884,441	0 12 6	1 5 2	1 17 8	27,423,000	25
1851 ...	6,571,626	3,979,141	0 12 1	1 5 2	1 17 3	27,529,000	27
1852 ...	7,172,858	3,893,656	0 10 10	1 2 10	1 13 8	27,570,000	29
1853 ...	7,487,589	4,083,836	0 10 11	1 5 0	1 15 11	27,663,000	30
1854 ...	8,332,407	4,741,757	0 11 5	1 1 5	1 12 10	27,788,000	34
1855 ...	7,547,157	5,058,500	0 13 5	1 6 9	2 0 2	27,899,000	30
1856 ...	7,071,515	5,129,649	0 14 6	1 9 7	2 4 1	28,154,000	28
1857 ...	7,419,518	5,055,034	0 13 8	1 15 7	2 9 3	28,359,000	29
1858 ...	8,746,496	5,848,170	0 13 4	1 7 10	2 1 2	28,566,000	34
1859 ...	8,884,299	5,935,909	0 13 4	1 6 3	1 19 7	28,774,000	35
1860 ...	8,771,996	5,833,484	0 13 4	1 7 2	2 0 6	28,984,000	34
1861 ...	9,180,986	6,107,330	0 13 4	1 3 8	1 17 0	29,196,000	35

NOTE.—With reference to the period from 1801 to 1814 inclusive, it is to be observed—

1. That the quantities of sugar used in the distillation of spirits at various times during that period, when the distillation from corn was prohibited, together with the duties levied on the quantities so used, have been excluded from this statement.

2. That the destruction of the records by fire in 1814 having rendered it impracticable to obtain an accurate view of the consumption of any single year prior to that date, the annual average consumption of the whole period, 1801-1814, is exhibited as the substitute for such information.

ABSTRACT of the foregoing Statement, showing the Annual Consumption of SUGAR in the UNITED KINGDOM in its relation to the Price of the Commodity, and the Pressure of the Duty, in successive Periods, from 1801 to 1861 inclusive.

	Quantity of Sugar annually consumed in the United Kingdom.	Net Revenue accruing from Sugar, after the Deduction of Drawbacks and Bounties on Sugar Exported.	Average Rate of Duty per Cwt. paid by the Consumer.	Average Price per Cwt. in Bond.	Average Price per Cwt. inclusive of Duty.	Population of the United Kingdom.	Average Quantity consumed by each Individual of the Population.
	Cwts.	£	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.		Lbs. oz.
Period of fourteen years: 1801-14...	2,847,519	3,362,702	26 2	48 1	74 3	17,256,000	18 7
Periods of five years:—							
1815-1819...	2,854,638	3,649,787	29 2	50 3	79 5	19,765,000	16 3
1820-1824...	3,385,700	4,244,899	27 4	32 11	60 3	21,335,000	17 12
1825-1829...	3,657,745	4,735,315	27 4	33 0	60 4	22,907,000	17 14
1830-1834...	3,941,653	4,557,219	24 6	27 1	51 7	24,328,000	18 2
1835-1839...	3,903,260	4,565,311	24 1	36 4	60 5	25,653,000	17 1
1840-1844...	3,935,712	4,943,574	25 2	38 7	63 9	27,023,000	16 5
1845-1849...	5,614,057	4,069,199	14 6	28 5	42 11	27,929,000	22 8
1850-1854...	7,154,461	4,116,566	11 6	23 11	35 5	27,595,000	29 1
1855-1859...	7,933,797	5,405,452	13 8	29 2	42 10	28,350,000	28 0
Single years:—							
1860 ...	8,771,996	5,833,484	13 4	27 2	40 6	28,984,000	34 0
1861 ...	9,180,986	6,107,330	13 4	23 8	37 0	29,196,000	35 0

*Accounts relating to the Consumption of Sugar in the United Kingdom.—
Observations on the Consumption of Sugar, from 1801 to 1856.*

The points principally deserving notice in the history of the sugar duties since the commencement of the present century will successively offer themselves to view on an inspection of the accompanying account, marked (A.); which exhibits the aggregate quantity of sugar annually consumed in the United Kingdom, and also the average quantity annually consumed by each individual of the population, connecting both with the fluctuating price of the commodity, and the varying rate of the impost.

The circumstance that first claims attention in the statement is this, that during the long term of years intervening between 1800 and 1844, the consumption of sugar was stationary, or rather slightly retrograde. In its absolute amount, it is true, it appears to have increased considerably during that period; but a closer examination shows that the increase was not commensurate with the augmented numbers of the people. During the fourteen years of almost uninterrupted war with which the century opened, the average quantity consumed by each person was 18 lbs. 7 oz. annually, and in the following thirty years of peace it did not exceed 17 lbs. 3 oz. That the rate of consumption should have been higher in the earlier than in the latter years must seem difficult at first to explain; but it will be remembered that the period of the war, unfavourable as it doubtless was to any healthy or regular development of the national resources, was yet a period of con-

tinued lavish expenditure on the part of the Government, and of frequently renewed commercial excitement. Such a state of things has an obvious tendency to stimulate the consumption of all articles that minister to the daily wants or enjoyments of the working classes.

It may further be remarked, that although during the war the prices of commodities were generally high, and all the higher for being estimated in a depreciated currency, the market value of sugar was lower then, on the whole, than it subsequently was for some years after the restoration of peace. We may affirm, indeed, that the virtual monopoly secured to our colonies in the supply of the home market—a monopoly so burthensome afterwards to the mother country—was felt far less injuriously at a time when the population of the United Kingdom was less by ten or eleven millions than it is at present, when the power of production in the West India Islands was maintained at a high pitch by the employment of slave labour, and when the exportation of British refined sugar, though fostered by an extravagant bounty, was forcibly held in check by the political condition of the European continent.

But when the ports of the continent were thrown open, an eager demand arose for those tropical products, the use of which had for some years been virtually, and even formally, interdicted to the population of almost every country but our own. Whatever raw sugar of foreign growth had been accumulated in our bonded warehouses was now speedily withdrawn for exportation; and besides this, the sugar of our own colonies, after having undergone the process of refining, by which it became entitled to the "bounty," was shipped in large quantities to the Hanse Towns, the Baltic, Antwerp, Rotterdam, and the Mediterranean.

The bounty, it is necessary to bear in mind, was truly what its name imports, a substantial premium on the exported product of the refineries, not the bare equivalent of the duty charged on the raw material. So that, in effect, the price of the commodity to the foreign consumer was paid in part by a subvention from the British Exchequer.

Under the operation of a system which repressed competition in the supply, and purchased competition in the demand, it is not to be wondered at that the consumption of sugar in the United Kingdom fell off. We shall find, on reference to the abstract annexed to the account, that the mean price paid for sugar by the British consumer, in the five years from 1815 to 1819, exceeded the mean price of the fourteen years from 1801 to 1814 by about 5s. 2d. per cwt.; and that the average quantity consumed by each individual of the population was less in the later than in the earlier period by about 2½ lbs. per annum.

After 1819, however, an altered state of affairs began to manifest itself. The continent was now abundantly and cheaply supplied with the sugar of Cuba, Brazil, and other foreign territories, both in America and Asia; and though the exportation of British refined sugar was still kept up by the sheer force of the bounty, the vacuum thus caused in the home supply was filled by continually increasing importations from Mauritius and from British India. These, indeed,—the former equally with the latter,—were burthened at first with a differential duty; but in 1825 this section of our tariff was partially corrected, by placing the produce of Mauritius on the same footing as the produce of the British West Indies—a measure so efficacious and so prompt in its result, that, within six years from that date, the supply from Mauritius was increased sixfold. Eventually, but not until

eleven years later, namely, in 1836, an equal privilege was accorded to the produce of our possessions in the East Indies.

Another improvement occurred in 1826, when the Legislature recognized the expediency of withdrawing some portion of the bounty allowed on the exportation of British refined sugar, and the rates were accordingly reduced in the proportion of 10 per cent. Even yet, however, the bounty operated to a considerable extent as a premium on the export; and so it continued to operate until 1838, when it was again revised and brought into equitable relation with the duty, assuming for the future the legitimate character of a mere drawback. From that time, however, it ceased almost wholly to be claimed during the next sixteen years; what external demand there was for sugar refined in this country being supplied by foreign sugar refined in bond, under a law which had been passed in 1832, and which continued in force until 1854.

While these beneficial changes were in progress, the consumption of sugar in the United Kingdom had risen somewhat above the level of extreme depression, to which it had sunk in the four or five years immediately succeeding the peace; but, during the whole quarter of a century intervening between 1819 and 1845, it was characterized by nothing like expansion or buoyancy. The quantity consumed by each individual of the population never, in any two successive years of that period, exceeded the mean of 19 lbs., and on the entire period it scarcely reached the average of 18 lbs. Moreover, in the last ten years of the term, it had been sensibly falling off. It was apparent, in short, that the price of sugar in this country was still too high in relation to the value of labour, and that a free use of the article by the working classes was only to be brought about by some decided course of legislation, throwing open fresh and abundant sources of supply.

The necessity for such a course was rendered more obvious by the diminution that had recently taken place in the supply from our West Indian colonies, a diminution which had been foreseen and accepted as a probable result of the emancipation of the negroes, but which was not the less detrimental in its actual influence on the market.

But although the general conclusion to which these considerations pointed was disputed by few, the method of reducing it to practice furnished a subject of prolonged discussion. While the principle which had hitherto been upheld, and which would have confined the consumption of the country to the produce of the British possessions, was felt to be no longer tenable; it was strenuously urged that it would be inconsistent alike with policy and with public morality, after having abolished slavery in our own colonies, at a heavy pecuniary cost to the nation, and at the risk of impairing the material prosperity of the colonies themselves, to allow the produce of slave labour to be largely introduced among us from the territories of foreign powers.

The cogency of this argument being admitted for the time, the measure which the Legislature adopted in 1844 went no further than to allow sugar, certified as the produce of free labour only, to be entered for home use at a duty of 10s. per cwt. above the rate chargeable on sugar of the British possessions.

In the following year, 1845, additional efficiency was given to this enactment by another, which lowered the rates of duty both on the free-labour sugar thus newly qualified, and on the produce of the British colonies, the

reduction being about 10*s.* per cwt. on each. An immediate increase of the entries ensued, so strongly marked, that the rate of consumption for each individual of the population rose, within the year, from 17 lbs. to 20 lbs. This may be regarded as the commencement of a new era for the sugar duties; but though the critical point was now passed, inasmuch as the rigid system of protection for colonial interests was abandoned, the opposite system had not yet been determinately embraced. After the lapse of another year, however, the scruples which had resisted the introduction of sugar the produce of slave labour, yielded to the clearly expressed judgment of the country in the opposite sense. The prohibitory duties were now wholly swept away, and foreign sugar, of whatever origin, became admissible to entry at rates which, for the quality inferior to white clayed, *i. e.*, for the bulk of the importations, exceeded those payable on sugar of the British possessions by only 7*s.* per cwt. But even this amount of inequality in the rates was only to continue for one year, a proviso being introduced into the schedule that in each succeeding year a portion of the differential duty should be remitted, until ultimately, in 1851, the duties on foreign and colonial produce should be equalized.

It is not necessary here to particularize the modifications which this scheme underwent in subsequent sessions of Parliament; modifications which rendered its operation more gradual, without affecting the spirit of the measure, or altering its ultimate result.

The provision for the equalization of the duties finally took effect in 1854. It then appeared, on looking back to the period preceding the Act of 1845, that in the intermediate space of ten years the price of sugar, to the British consumer, had been reduced in the proportion of fully 44 per cent., and that the rate of consumption had been exactly doubled, having risen from 17 lbs. to 34 lbs. per head.

But at this point, unfortunately, there intervened an altered condition of affairs, by which the forward course of consumption was impeded and, for a while, reversed.

A few weeks before the date previously fixed for the equalization of the duties on sugar of foreign and colonial growth, *viz.* in May, 1854, the war which had recently broken out with Russia rendered it necessary to make an immediate addition of 15 per cent. to the discriminative rates still existing, and prospectively to increase in a somewhat greater degree the equalized rates which were to come into operation on the 5th July following. Nor was this the farthest limit which the returning tide of taxation was to reach, under the inevitable influence of the same cause, for in April, 1855, the augmented scale of duties, which had then been in force for only nine months, was replaced by another which, in each of its divisions, was one-fourth higher than itself.

Within no long interval after the first increase of the rates of duty, the consumption began to decline. In 1854 it amounted, as we have observed, to 34 lbs. per head of the population. In 1855 it fell to 30 lbs., and in 1856 to 28 lbs. per head. But it would be wrong to ascribe this decline solely or mainly to the tax, for the price of the commodity, irrespectively of the duty, rose, as we shall find, during the same two years no less than 8*s.* per cwt., and was higher on the average of 1856 than it had previously been in any year since 1847. This rise of price, attributable to a falling off in the importations, and especially to the diminished supplies from Cuba and Brazil, continued through a part of the year 1857; but towards

the close of that year, a downward tendency of the market began again to manifest itself, which, with few and transient interruptions, has continued to the present time.

The consumption of 1857 was favoured, doubtless, by the partial remission of the additional duties, which took place in April, and which left the rates as they now stand. Notwithstanding the prevalence of high prices during eight or nine months of the year, it showed a slight excess over the consumption of 1856.

But in the following year, 1858, the beneficial effect of renewed abundance in the supply became strikingly apparent. The rate of consumption attained the same high level at which it had stood in 1854, and at or a little above this level it has remained to the close of the year 1861.

The generally prosperous condition of the working classes during the latter years included in this retrospect, is a circumstance too important in its bearing on the subject to be overlooked. The unwelcome persuasion that a less favourable state of things prevails at present, and may but too probably continue for months to come, alone opposes the conclusion which the appended statement might otherwise have justified, that the consumption of sugar is steadily and even rapidly progressive.

7th May, 1862.

JOHN A. MESSENGER.

EXCHEQUER.

Account of the Monies received during the year ended March 31, 1862, to the Account of her Majesty's Exchequer, at the Bank of England and of Ireland, under the respective heads of Public Revenue; the Amount of all Royal Orders and Treasury Warrants received, and of the Credits and Transfers made by the Comptroller-General of the Exchequer, the Payments by the Bank of England, and the Balance remaining to the Account of the Exchequer in each Bank on the 31st March, 1862. (66.)

ON the 31st of March, 1861, the Exchequer balance amounted to 6,675,319*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.*; the receipts, including Revenue and Exchequer Bills, amounted to 84,185,997*l.* 7*s.* 2*d.*: total, 90,860,877*l.* The issue was, Exchequer credits, at Bank of England and transfers at Bank of Ireland, 85,569,532*l.*, leaving a balance of income at the Bank of 5,291,344*l.* 13*s.* 1*d.*

SUGAR AND MOLASSES.

Return of the quantity of Sugar and Molasses used in brewing Beer and distilling Spirits for the year ended the 30th day of September, 1861. (Mr. Locke.) 3rd March, 1862. (78.)

IN the year ended 30th September, 1861, 83,618 cwts. were used in the brewing of beer, and 5906 cwts. of sugar and 227,619 cwts. molasses in the distillation of spirits.

ACCOUNTS OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

IMPORTS AND CONSUMPTION.

AN ACCOUNT of the IMPORTS and CONSUMPTION of the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES
of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE, in the YEAR ended 31st
DECEMBER, 1862.

Articles Free of Duty.

Animals, living	number	415,521	Oil:—		
Ashes	cwts.	161,113	Train, Blubber, and		
Bark	"	291,393	Spermaceti	tuns	18,264
Peruvian	"	17,833	Palm	cwts.	865,890
Bones	tons	67,271	Cocoa Nut	"	170,485
Brimstone	cwts.	1,067,387	Olive	tuns	21,095
Bristles	lbs.	2,278,413	Seed Oil, of all kinds	"	11,201
Caoutchouc	cwts.	59,703	Oil of Turpentine ...	cwts.	66,632
Clocks and Watches ...	number	408,791	Oil Seed Cakes	tons	101,156
Cotton, Raw	cwts.	4,678,333	Potatoes	cwts.	1,354,636
Cotton Manufactures ...	value	£899,738	Provisions:—		
Cream of Tartar	cwts.	36,340	Bacon and Hams	"	1,345,694
Dyes and Dyeing Stuffs:—			Beef, Salt	"	187,640
Brazil Wood	tons	2,742	Pork, Salt	"	226,470
Cochineal	cwts.	22,760	Butter	"	1,037,371
Indigo	"	69,589	Cheese	"	703,909
Logwood	tons	41,257	Eggs	number	235,230,360
Madder and Madder			Lard	cwts.	530,090
Root	cwts.	299,873	Quicksilver	lbs.	1,161,352
Garancine	"	38,311	Rags, &c.	tons	23,942
Shumac	tons	13,819	Rice	cwts.	3,919,189
Terra Japonica	"	11,686	Saltpetre	"	443,248
Cutch	"	2,069	Cubic Nitre	"	794,318
Valonia	"	29,720	Seeds:—Clover	"	168,974
Elephants' Teeth	cwts.	11,125	Flaxseed and Linseed	qrs.	1,088,472
Flax	"	1,798,351	Rape	"	189,307
Guano	tons	141,636	Silk:—		
Gum Shellac	cwts.	34,540	Raw	lbs.	10,295,268
Gutta Percha	"	18,284	Waste, Knubs, and		
Hair:—			Husks	cwts.	28,142
Goats' Hair or Wool	lbs.	4,047,870	Thrown	lbs.	104,779
Manufactures of Hair			Silk Manufactures of Europe:—		
and of Goats' Wool	value	£397,454	Broad Stuffs	"	1,475,715
Hemp	cwts.	981,765	Ribbons	"	793,209
Jute	"	969,943	Plush for making Hats	"	88,111
Hides, Untanned:—			Silk Manufactures of India	pieces	199,422
Dry	"	318,167	Spices:—Cinnamon ...	lbs.	867,622
Wet	"	625,026	Ginger	cwts.	18,968
Hides,	lbs.	5,415,392	Nutmegs	lbs.	511,023
Leather Manufactures:—			Pimento	cwts.	30,050
Boots, Shoes, and Go-			Tallow	"	1,103,247
loshes, of all kinds	pairs	336,978	Tar	lasts	17,874
Boot Fronts	"	606,972	Turpentine, common ...	cwts.	12,722
Gloves	"	6,876,720	Wool:—		
Lemons and Oranges ...	bushels	1,025,278	Sheep and Lambs' ...	lbs.	168,854,213
Metals:—			Alpaca and the Llama		
Copper Ore	tons	82,054	Tribe	"	3,106,759
Copper Regulus	"	35,388	Woollen Rags	"	20,097,280
Copper unwrought			Woollen Manufactures:—		
and part wrought	cwts.	268,666	Manufactures not		
Iron, unwrought	tons	49,662	made up	value	£1,174,583
Steel, unwrought	"	5,050	Shawls, Scarfs, and		
Lead, Pig, and Sheet	"	23,693	Handkerchiefs ...	lbs.	627,168
Spelter or Zinc	"	23,709	Woollen and Worsted		
Tin	cwts.	87,873	Yarn	"	2,244,70
Silver Ore	value	£331,564	Yeast, dried	cwts.	102,20

Articles Subject to Duty.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	Imports.	Entered for Home Consumption.	PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	Imports.	Entered for Home Consumption.
Cocoa lbs.	9,912,508	8,926,500	Timber and Wood :—		
Coffee "	94,210,359	84,664,185	Staves, not exceeding 72 in. long loads	51,738	51,738
Corn :—			Timber or Wood not Sawn or Split, or otherwise dressed, except hewn, and not otherwise charged with Duty "	1,222,052	1,222,102
Wheat qrs.	9,469,270	9,542,263	Tobacco :—		
Barley "	1,854,944	1,863,683	Stemmed lbs.	11,827,794	14,910,726
Oats "	1,609,816	1,623,449	Unstemmed "	28,156,802	30,370,110
Peas "	227,716	230,133	Manufactured, and Snuff "	2,815,425	334,150
Beans "	475,332	479,329	Wine galls.	11,962,328	..
Indian Corn or Maize "	2,728,791	2,761,267			
Wheat Meal & Flour cwts.	7,307,113	7,314,319			
Indian Corn Meal "	9,192	9,173			
Fruit :—					
Currents "	875,099	701,371			
Raisins "	278,750	279,460			
Hops "	133,791	74,145			
Mahogany tons	53,797	53,797			
Spices :—					
Pepper lbs.	18,116,022	4,041,063			
Spirits :—					
Rum proof gal.	7,766,266	3,320,181			
Brandy "	2,375,930	1,700,183			
Sugar, Unrefined :—					
1st quality (equal to White Clayed) cwts.	98,427	54,953			
2nd quality (not equal to White, but equal to Brown Clayed) "	3,788,170	3,582,379			
3rd quality (not equal to Brown Clayed) "	6,008,367	5,810,155			
Refined, and Sugar Candy "	324,462	269,640			
Molasses "	1,126,489	1,116,813			
Tea lbs.	114,787,462	78,517,060			
Timber and Wood :—					
Deals, Battens, Boards, or other Timber or Wood, Sawn or Split .. loads	1,562,976	1,563,010			

COMPUTED REAL VALUE OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IMPORTED.

AN ACCOUNT of the COMPUTED REAL VALUE of the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE, Imported in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

Coffee, Raw	£3,302,868	Jute and other vegetable substances of the nature of Hemp.	£ 939,746
Corn :—		Hides, Untanned :—	
Wheat	23,203,800	Dry	1,149,897
Barley	2,516,754	Wet	1,610,391
Oats	1,671,335	Tanned, Tawed, Curried, or Dressed (except Russia Hides)	427,646
Peas	413,575	Indigo	2,445,934
Beans	735,346	Metals :—	
Indian Corn or Maize	3,820,778	Copper Ore	1,257,858
Wheatmeal and Flour	5,387,084	Copper Regulus	1,373,198
Cotton, Raw	31,093,045	Iron in Bars, unwrought	545,747
Cotton Manufactures not made up	899,738	Lead, Pig, and Sheet	460,536
Flax (dressed and undressed), and Tow or Codilla of Flax	5,205,912	Spelter	457,824
Fruit :—		Tin, in Blocks, Ingots, Bars, or Slabs	508,919
Currents	871,807	Oil :—	
Raisins	355,731	Train, Blubber, and Spermaceti	1,014,981
Guano	1,635,322		
Hemp :—			
Hemp (dressed and undressed), and Tow or Codilla of Hemp	1,704,874		

Oil:—	£	Sugar, Unrefined:—	£
Palm	1,724,310	3rd Quality (not equal to	
Olive	1,211,306	Brown Clayed)	6,264,222
Oil Seed Cakes	829,192	" Refined and Sugar Candy	547,573
Provisions:—		Molasses	541,645
Bacon	2,090,747	Tallow	2,508,319
Butter	4,923,100	Tea	9,175,940
Cheese	1,550,094	Timber and Wood:—	
Rice not in the Husk	2,400,069	Deals, Battens, Boards, or	
Saltpetre	768,815	other Timber or Wood,	
Cubic Nitre	540,353	Sawn or Split	4,831,828
Seeds, Flax, and Linseed	3,210,869	Timber or Wood, not Sawn	
Silk:—		or Split, or otherwise	
Raw	9,824,148	dressed, except Hewn, and	
Thrown	100,249	not otherwise charged	
Silk Manufactures of Europe:—		with duty	4,461,123
Broadstuffs	3,768,553	Tobacco:—	
Ribbons	2,080,626	Stemmed	751,907
Push for making Hats	123,354	Unstemmed	1,247,494
Spirits:—		Manufactured, and Cigars	351,613
Rum	660,920	Wine	3,649,053
Brandy	1,031,182	Wool, Sheep and Lambs'	11,316,724
Sugar, Unrefined:—		Wool, Alpaca and the Llama	
1st Quality (equal to White		Tribe	457,876
Clayed)	130,259	Woollen Rags	334,958
2nd Quality (not equal to		Woollen Manufactures not made	
White, but equal to Brown		up	1,174,583
Clayed)	4,535,470	TOTAL real Value of enumerated	
		Articles	£184,129,120

EXPORTS—FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE.

AN ACCOUNT of the EXPORTS of the PRINCIPAL ARTICLES of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

Cheese	cwts.	9,298	Oil:—	
Cocoa	lbs.	1,450,814	Cocoa Nut	165,778
Coffee:—			Olive	1,018
Of British Possessions	"	39,833,161	Quicksilver	1,027,393
Foreign	"	17,066,669	Rice, not in the Husk	1,272,049
Corn:—			Saltpetre	78,688
Wheat	qrs.	10,692	Seed:—	
Wheatmeal or Flour	cwts.	33,571	Flax and Linseed	89,403
Cotton, Raw	"	1,917,095	Rape	30,757
Cotton Manufactures	value	£175,579	Silk:—	
Dyes and Dyeing Stuffs:—			Raw	5,205,861
Cochineal	cwts.	18,193	Waste, Knubs, and	
Indigo	"	52,808	Husks	4,228
Fruit:—			Thrown	137,995
Currants	"	102,919	Silk Manufactures of	
Raisins	"	52,851	Europe:—	
Guano	tons	16,224	Broad Stuffs: Silk or	
Hemp	cwts.	73,841	Satin	12,607
Jute	"	116,638	Broad Stuffs: Gauze,	
Hides:—			Crape, and Velvet	5,303
Untanned, Dry	"	220,714	Ribbons of all kinds	14,723
Wet	"	65,671	Silk Manufactures of India	128,854
Hops	cwts.	14,280	Spices:—	
Leather Manufactures:—			Cinnamon	813,591
Gloves	pairs	27,408	Pepper	12,623,463
Metals:—			Spirits:—	
Copper, unwrought			Rum	2,899,102
and part wrought	cwts.	173,571	Brandy	697,458
Tin in Blocks, Ingots,			Mixed in Bond	777,149
Bars, or Slabs	"	21,668	Sugar:—	
Oil:—			Unrefined	241,470
Palm	"	231,948		

Sugar:—				Wine:—			
Refined and Candy	cwts.	22,711		White	...	galls.	1,233,010
Molasses	...	51,399		Mixed in Bond	...	"	52,516
Tallow	...	132,851		Wool:—			
Tea	...	27,342,603	lbs.	Sheep and Lambs',			
Tobacco:—				Produce of British			
Stemmed	...	342,956	"	Possessions	...	lbs.	37,441,617
Unstemmed	...	12,257,399	"	Foreign	...	"	10,653,811
Manufactured, and Snuff	...	946,865	"	Alpaca and the Llama			
Wine:—Red	...	824,897	galls.	Tribe	...	"	25,871

CUSTOMS DUTIES.

AN ACCOUNT of the GROSS PRODUCE of, and TOTAL REVENUE from, DUTIES of CUSTOMS in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

Gross Produce of Customs Duties	...	£23,993,546
Payments out of Gross Produce; for		
Drawbacks	...	217,466
Allowances on Quantities over-entered, Damages, &c.	...	66,575
Total	...	£284,041

Total Revenue from Customs Duties with-
out deducting charges of collection ... } £23,709,505

AN ACCOUNT of the Gross Amount produced by CUSTOMS DUTIES upon the PRINCIPAL and other ARTICLES of FOREIGN and COLONIAL MERCHANDISE, in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

Cocoa	...	£16,361	Sugar Refined and Candy:—		
Coffee:—			From Foreign Countries	...	£245,935
From British Possessions out of			Sugar, Molasses:—		
Europe	...	396,734	From British Possessions out of		
From Foreign Countries	...	36,626	Europe	...	48,667
Corn:—			From Foreign Countries	...	144,149
Wheat	...	477,124	Tea	...	5,582,793
Barley	...	93,188	Timber and Wood:—		
Oats	...	81,174	Not sawn or split, or otherwise		
Peas	...	11,507	dressed, except hewn:—		
Beans	...	23,962	From British Possessions	...	24,855
Indian Corn or Maize	...	137,564	Foreign	...	40,077
Wheatmeal and Flour	...	137,161	Deals, Battens, Boards, or other		
Other kinds of Grain and Meal	...	802	Timber or Wood, sawn or		
Fruits:—			Split:—		
Currants	...	245,504	From British Possessions	...	59,648
Figs	...	29,120	Foreign	...	95,808
Raisins	...	97,837	Firewood	...	5,514
Hops	...	55,969	Lathwood	...	3,332
Spices:—			Tobacco:—Stemmed	...	2,348,445
Pepper	...	106,080	Unstemmed	...	3,208,295
Spirits:—			Manufactured, and Snuff	...	157,708
Rum	...	1,687,793	Wine:—		
Brandy	...	885,505	Under 26 degs.	...	67,871
Geneva	...	49,430	Under 45 degs., to April 3, 1862,		
Sugar, Unrefined			under 42 degs. from that date	...	944,113
From British Possessions in			42 degs. and upwards from		
America	...	2,428,217	April 3, 1862	...	1,074
From Mauritius	...	457,487	In bottles: under 40 degs., to		
From British Possessions in the			April 3, 1862, under 42 degs.		
East Indies	...	300,628	from that date	...	110,535
From Foreign Countries	...	3,014,911	Arrears, unclassified, at old duty	...	12
Sugar, Refined, and Candy:—			Other Articles	...	132,794
From British Possessions out of			Total	...	£23,993,546
Europe	...	1,237			

AN ACCOUNT of the EXPORTS of the PRINCIPAL and OTHER ARTICLES of
BRITISH and IRISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURES from the UNITED
KINGDOM in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Alkali; Soda:—		£	Cotton Manufactures—cont.		£
To France cwts.	118,349	38,966	Portugal, Azores, and Madeira .. yards	19,139,322	468,769
United States "	1,046,164	453,926	Sardinia "	14,121,962	265,286
Other Countries "	928,773	392,579	Tuscany "	11,040,427	196,770
Apparel and Slops:—			Naples and Sicily .. "	23,507,388	436,457
To Egypt value £	..	95,195	Austrian Territories .. "	12,793,096	218,273
British N. America "	..	145,284	Turkey "	129,880,212	2,191,390
" Possessions in South Africa "	..	193,825	Syria and Palestine .. "	39,649,644	492,154
" India "	..	58,128	Egypt "	55,531,061	719,818
Australia "	..	1,526,763	W. Coast of Africa .. "	23,737,876	406,403
Other Countries "	..	537,277	United States "	97,728,932	1,849,748
Arms, Ammunition, and Military Stores:—			Foreign W. Indies .. "	67,159,624	1,139,774
Fire-arms (small) .. number	699,718	1,579,333	Mexico "	19,797,942	400,011
Gunpowder lbs.	16,243,373	486,793	New Granada "	28,458,441	456,884
Of all other kinds .. value £	..	215,595	Brazil "	107,879,939	1,852,856
Bacon and Hams cwts.	64,750	213,333	Uruguay "	10,040,955	197,617
Bags, empty dozens	788,774	386,512	Buenos Ayres "	16,465,337	296,793
Beef and Pork barrels	10,823	41,769	Chili "	21,969,946	361,578
Beer and Ale:—			Peru "	13,814,754	252,825
To United States "	7,790	31,525	China and Hong Kong "	80,431,440	1,265,668
British West Indies "	Java "	26,322,335	496,180
and Guiana "	21,383	76,784	Philippine Islands .. "	14,349,018	294,510
" India "	159,139	445,801	Gibraltar "	16,803,183	313,929
Australia "	152,900	563,169	Malta "	10,040,313	139,622
Other Countries "	123,067	477,101	British N. America .. "	32,460,478	612,629
Books, Printed cwts.	27,711	415,602	" West Indies "	28,287,765	494,927
Butter "	81,473	378,691	" Possessions in South Africa .. "	11,035,690	237,345
Candles, Stearine and Composite lbs.	4,905,480	226,385	British India:—		
Cheese cwts.	32,141	126,668	Bombay "	171,121,864	2,509,258
Coals, Cinders, and Cullm:—			Madras "	10,068,701	189,702
To Russia tons	437,759	191,704	Bengal "	242,653,008	4,484,942
Sweden "	244,680	99,018	Singapore "	32,965,987	576,349
Denmark "	569,062	229,354	Ceylon "	18,455,127	310,563
Prussia "	534,897	199,496	Australia "	34,005,945	630,086
Hanse Towns "	538,026	212,922	Other Countries "	83,566,053	1,259,851
Holland "	254,214	106,883	Lace and Patent Net .. value £	..	517,034
France "	1,443,109	611,941	Hosiery: Stockings .. doz. pairs	895,415	282,298
Spain and Canaries "	523,657	254,638	" of other kinds .. value £	..	169,409
Sardinia "	276,919	121,752	Counterpanes and Small Wares "	..	383,097
United States "	321,459	302,050	Thread, for Sewing:—		
Brazil "	138,823	76,302	To France lbs.	201,285	88,116
British India "	266,961	138,360	United States "	1,448,089	253,284
Other Countries "	2,768,687	1,305,569	Other Countries "	2,996,489	346,026
Cordage and Twine cwts.	125,990	313,368	Earthenware and Porcelain:—		
Cotton Yarn:—			To Hanse Towns .. packages	7,853	52,632
To Russia lbs.	936,395	80,753	France "	6,853	54,856
Prussia "	7,035,129	361,408	United States "	56,868	321,756
Hanover "	1,380,750	91,267	Brazil "	19,275	68,687
Hanse Towns "	19,195,540	1,307,345	British N. America .. "	14,170	76,910
Holland "	18,694,092	1,243,691	" India "	14,829	53,752
France "	1,895,562	246,301	Australia "	17,609	124,402
Sardinia "	1,771,879	93,510	Other Countries "	78,654	436,137
Tuscany "	1,892,632	90,384	Total of Earthenware "	206,245	1,150,541
Papal Territories "	702,574	32,337	Total of Porcelain "	5,963	66,991
Naples and Sicily "	4,709,781	240,240	Fish, Herrings:—		
Austrian Territories "	1,574,604	74,656	To Prussia barrels	272,651	385,994
Turkey "	5,619,260	33,600	Hanover "	83,342	116,913
China and Hong Kong "	Other Countries "	154,418	187,442
British India:—			Fish, Other Sorts .. value £	..	191,858
Bombay "	4,676,075	282,808	Furniture "	..	275,591
Madras "	1,663,956	157,933	Glass, Flint cwts.	98,961	267,587
Bengal "	9,681,377	797,338	Glass, Window "	48,040	55,164
Singapore "	1,593,371	99,389	Glass, Common Bottles .. "	542,276	276,467
Ceylon "	448,440	40,479	Glass, Plate sq. feet	534,488	57,543
Other Countries "	6,551,173	449,031	Haberdashery and Millinery:—		
Cotton Manufactures:—			To France value £	..	177,831
Piece Goods of all kinds, Plain, Printed, or Coloured:—			Egypt "	..	141,404
To Hanse Towns .. yards	44,438,939	982,791	United States "	..	623,878
Holland "	26,365,337	545,293	Cuba "	..	22,868
France "	34,868,911	553,048	Buenos Ayres "	..	23,176
			Channel Islands "	..	117,436
			British N. America "	..	435,608

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Haberdashery, &c.—cont.		£	Leather, Saddlery and Harness:—		£
British W. Indies.. value £	..	156,456	To British Possessions		
" Possessions in South Africa	180,703	in South Africa.. value £	..	33,396
" India..	145,565	British India	31,371
Australia	914,042	Australia	161,380
Other Countries	643,381	Other Countries	117,533
Hardware and Cutlery:—			Linen Yarn:—		
To Russia	140,664	To Hanse Towns .. lbs.	6,392,449	416,168
Hanse Towns	211,908	Holland	3,644,476
Holland	100,218	Belgium	1,061,496
France	248,508	France	886,540
Spain and Canaries	95,664	Spain and Canaries ..	10,879,753	587,366
United States	461,616	Other Countries ..	9,722,992	496,147
Cuba	65,722	Linen Manufactures:—		
Brazil	125,186	Piece Goods of all kinds:—		
Buenos Ayres	43,226	To Russia yards	661,486	36,303
British N. America	164,136	Prussia	1,698,702
" Possessions in South Africa	95,388	Hanse Towns	10,955,889	845,089
" India..	268,131	Holland	2,193,926
Australia	379,542	France	3,386,361
Other Countries	946,160	Portugal, Azores, and Madeira ..	1,129,355	26,836
Hardware, Cutlery:—			Spain and Canaries ..	3,099,316	95,599
To Russia	2,473	Sardinia	1,248,355	46,874
Hanse Towns	7,380	Tuscany	882,461	30,898
Holland	1,486	Naples and Sicily..	1,512,172	61,596
France	11,100	United States	65,642,017	1,673,865
Spain and Canaries	7,881	Cuba	12,042,324	396,983
United States	75,065	St. Thomas	5,451,318	143,538
Cuba	1,423	Hayti	2,253,796	104,404
Brazil	13,962	Brazil	5,673,306	173,011
Buenos Ayres	1,238	Chili	1,545,773	43,884
British N. America	11,666	Peru	1,315,791	36,780
" Possessions in South Africa	9,007	British West Indies ..	4,253,985	105,106
" India..	22,527	" India	2,432,449	92,502
Australia	40,501	Australia	5,299,628	183,026
Other Countries	79,330	Other Countries ..	23,791,570	768,007
Hardware: Manufactures of Steel, or of Steel and Iron combined:—			Linen, Lace of Thread value £	..	1,896
To Russia	73,830	Linen Thread:—		
Hanse Towns	12,465	To Hanse Towns .. lbs.	908,416	124,229
Holland	16,108	United States	2,117,645	203,085
France	47,491	Other Countries ..	918,371	101,598
Spain and Canaries	12,375	Linen Hosiery and other Goods entered at value value £	..	51,873
United States	63,797	Machinery: Steam Engines:—		
Cuba	2,165	To Russia	89,101
Brazil	3,654	France	12,833
Buenos Ayres	974	Spain and Canaries	245,162
British N. America	11,033	Brazil	74,420
" Possessions in South Africa	8,924	British India	460,699
" India..	47,832	Australia	165,131
Australia	49,297	Other Countries	614,415
Other Countries	80,059	Machinery: Other Sorts:—		
Hats doz.	225,471	404,772	To Russia	323,439
Horses:—			Hanse Towns	162,047
To Hanse Towns .. number	962	117,831	Holland	161,676
France	1,984	79,631	Belgium	97,674
Other Countries ..	1,402	73,169	France	339,323
Jute, Manufactures not made up .. yards	6,978,581	115,613	Spain and Canaries	133,541
Jute, Manufactures made up .. value £	..	17,673	British India	300,876
Jute Yarn lbs.	6,530,874	97,585	Australia	105,146
Leather, Tanned, Tawed, or Dressed, Unwrought			Other Countries	841,507
Leather, Wrought, Boots and Shoes:—			Metals: Iron, Pig, and Puddled:—		
To Australia lbs.	4,805,784	1,231,570	To Prussia tons	28,262	77,706
Other Countries ..	1,959,097	407,666	Holland	74,504
Leather, Wrought, of other sorts:—			France	173,137	458,146
To Australia	228,106	53,442	United States	21,936
Other Countries ..	600,423	123,925	Other Countries	147,164
Leather, Wrought, of all sorts, except Saddlery and Harness:—			Iron, Bar, Angle, Bolt, and Rod:—		
To Australia	5,033,890	1,235,012	To Hanse Towns ..	9,994	91,726
Other Countries ..	2,569,529	531,591	Holland	14,104
			France	26,150
			Sardinia	14,337
			Naples and Sicily..	..	15,419
			Turkey	14,419
			United States	46,001
			British N. America	23,331
			India	40,169
			Australia	11,228
			Other Countries	88,130

ACCOUNTS OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

291

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Metals—cont.		£	Metals—cont.		£
Railroad Iron, of all sorts :—			Lead Ore tons	7,590	172,180
To Russia tons	9,770	81,027	Tin, Unwrought :—		
Sweden "	14,118	90,478	To Russia cwts.	8,113	46,881
Prussia "	13,732	99,636	France "	18,739	107,572
France "	43,666	251,951	Turkey "	5,385	30,715
Spain and Canaries "	58,352	387,638	Other Countries "	49,676	287,488
United States "	16,376	89,180	Tin Plates :—		
Cuba "	3,915	29,599	To France "	44,627	55,355
Brazil "	8,613	64,774	United States "	590,909	688,360
Chili "	4,249	25,373	British N. America "	31,106	40,760
British N. America "	5,760	36,356	Australia "	16,580	22,632
India "	79,370	662,525	Other Countries "	318,310	403,023
Australia "	12,981	111,172	Zinc or Spelter, Wrought or Unwrought "	101,050	102,700
Other Countries "	131,609	885,458	Oil, Seed :—		
Iron Wire "	14,333	303,780	To Hanover galls.	284,020	41,918
Iron, Cast :—			Hanse Towns "	701,062	107,224
To Russia tons	4,641	23,838	Holland "	1,114,610	156,391
France "	3,908	23,716	France "	1,682,883	263,373
United States "	789	11,734	United States "	114,680	16,540
Brazil "	2,979	39,075	Other Countries "	2,636,963	410,571
British India "	8,694	76,968	Painters' Colours .. value £	..	459,682
Australia "	6,788	69,328	Paper and Pasteboard :—		
Other Countries "	37,411	313,560	To British India cwts.	29,952	104,068
Iron Hoops, Sheets, and Boiler Plates :—			Australia "	66,285	190,151
To Russia "	3,086	32,345	Other Countries "	44,613	156,761
Prussia "	2,375	31,369	Pickles and Sauces .. value £	..	304,948
Hanse Towns "	2,743	42,779	Plate, Plated Ware, Jewellery, and Watches "	..	504,695
Holland "	9,032	98,660	Salt :—		
France "	4,500	41,654	To Russia tons	63,067	26,158
Spain and Canaries "	4,339	54,292	United States "	147,303	64,046
United States "	15,743	150,441	British N. America "	79,914	25,935
British N. America "	9,749	86,599	India "	182,447	89,782
India "	12,331	110,029	Other Countries "	197,108	105,097
Australia "	3,227	35,839	Silk, Thrown :—		
Other Countries "	34,774	339,769	To Holland lbs.	283,743	314,417
Iron, Wrought, of all sorts :—			Belgium "	102,516	114,433
To Russia tons	5,141	100,317	France "	187,997	236,033
Prussia "	6,159	49,687	Other Countries "	74,406	82,876
Hanse Towns "	3,238	59,986	Silk, Twist and Yarn :—		
Holland "	10,109	87,101	To Hanse Towns "	89,350	67,184
France "	10,886	87,133	Holland "	169,684	94,159
Spain and Canaries "	9,245	216,115	France "	330,608	165,013
United States "	11,616	147,805	Other Countries "	31,680	18,814
British N. America "	8,511	130,351	Silk Manufactures :—		
Possessions in South Africa "	3,693	90,835	Stuffs, Handkerchiefs, and Ribbons of Silk only (as registered previously to 1862) :—		
India "	15,219	234,229	To France value £	..	21,321
Australia "	14,180	249,152	Egypt "	..	216,457
Other Countries "	37,443	669,640	United States "	..	110,814
Iron, Steel, Unwrought :—			Australia "	..	109,835
To France "	2,369	106,050	Other Countries "	..	277,572
United States "	13,142	440,791	Broad Piece Goods, Fancy Silks and Satins, Velvets, and Grey Cloths, of Silk only :—		
Other Countries "	8,978	275,666	To France yards	35,248	7,320
Copper, Unwrought, in Ingots, Cakes, or Slabs :—			Egypt "	765,927	136,645
To Holland cwts.	4,460	20,802	United States "	500,642	75,786
Belgium "	8,853	40,724	Australia "	300,026	55,233
France "	61,532	306,040	Other Countries "	531,632	87,174
British India "	15,634	75,231	Handkerchiefs, Scarfs, Shawls, of Silk only :—		
Other Countries "	10,876	51,455	To France doz.	9,290	13,390
Copper, Wrought, or partly Wrought :—			Egypt "	22,708	51,461
To Hanse Towns "	28,560	125,578	United States "	6,555	5,743
Holland "	15,350	66,960	Australia "	5,407	6,078
France "	15,526	74,321	Other Countries "	117,364	146,424
Sardinia "	21,707	107,094	Ribbons of Silk only :—		
Turkey "	7,991	41,683	To France lbs.	2,122	1,311
United States "	6,092	26,642	Egypt "	23,636	28,353
British India "	184,663	845,454	United States "	26,789	29,285
Other Countries "	139,413	673,076	Australia "	28,824	48,019
Copper, Wrought, of other sorts "	26,069	154,784	Other Countries "	32,424	44,274
Brass of all sorts "	38,229	209,461	Other Articles of Silk only :—		
Lead :—			To Hanse Towns .. value £	..	41,334
To Russia tons	3,033	62,847	France "	..	32,227
France "	518	10,261	United States "	..	85,074
United States "	12,687	259,947	Other Countries "	..	185,999
China and Hong Kong "	9,728	209,196			
British India "	2,347	51,921			
Australia "	1,598	34,760			
Other Countries "	8,442	142,658			

ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Silk Manufactures, mixed with other Materials:—		£	Woolens—cont.		£
To Hanse Towns .. value £	..	90,790	Flannels yards	6,904,571	415,318
France "	..	21,607	Blankets number	3,538,894	833,935
United States "	..	17,527	Blanketing and Baines pieces	50,817	131,532
Other Countries "	..	56,283	Carpets and Druggets:—		
Soap cwt.	173,905	226,534	To Hanse Towns .. yards	229,681	23,780
Spirits (British):—			Holland "	178,268	25,681
To France galls.	379,451	43,598	France "	1,238,227	137,309
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira "	765,358	74,623	Spain and Canaries "	156,612	16,053
United States "	211,955	23,300	Sardinia "	89,022	12,587
Australia "	525,021	88,620	United States "	1,607,179	235,855
Other Countries "	1,874,321	271,142	Chili "	41,287	6,016
Stationery, other than Paper:—			British N. America "	304,035	33,184
To British India .. value £	..	31,270	Australia "	483,216	47,707
Australia "	..	53,118	Other Countries "	1,062,054	131,281
Other Countries "	..	201,357	Shawls, Rugs, Coverlets or Wrappers, and Carpet Rugs:—		
Sugar, Refined cwt.	214,215	530,320	To France number	26,168	11,029
Telegraphic Wire and Apparatus .. value £	..	321,044	United States "	272,677	71,029
Wool, Sheep and Lambs:—			Other Countries "	748,340	225,232
To Hanse Towns .. lbs.	1,173,919	101,213	Worsted Stuffs of Wool and mixed with other Materials, and Waistcoatings:—		
Belgium "	763,376	72,286	To Hanover pieces	30,996	46,533
France "	5,133,128	385,073	Hanse Towns "	709,405	1,098,344
Other Countries "	3,026,677	193,725	Holland "	257,222	394,464
Woolen and Worsted Yarn:—			Belgium "	102,921	166,526
To Russia "	1,206,003	175,731	France "	541,301	922,301
Hanover "	519,777	63,051	Sardinia "	96,347	120,170
Hanse Towns "	18,885,500	2,207,505	Tuscany "	39,173	52,158
Holland "	5,638,402	789,560	Naples and Sicily "	54,963	80,499
Belgium "	233,455	24,407	United States "	933,624	1,142,403
France "	1,692,526	372,154	China and Hong Kong "	171,472	435,755
Other Countries "	1,729,623	211,703	British N. America "	94,306	137,250
Woolens and Worsteds: Cloths of all kinds, Duffels, and Kerseymeres, of Wool unmixed, or mixed:—			.. Possessions in South Africa "	13,038	24,990
To Hanse Towns .. pieces	38,589	229,526	.. India "	41,641	71,910
Holland "	9,213	52,319	Australia "	255,627	390,132
France "	256,999	716,619	Other Countries "	516,143	787,563
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira "	12,784	59,721	Total of Worsted Stuffs of Wool only "	1,282,968	2,344,265
Sardinia "	56,878	125,009	Total of Worsted Stuffs of Wool mixed with other Materials, and Waistcoatings "	2,575,725	3,627,652
Naples and Sicily "	86,485	84,261	Hosiery, Stockings .. doz. pairs	257,386	141,376
United States "	185,909	689,685	Hosiery, other than Stockings value £	..	222,791
Brazil "	34,787	120,801	Small Wares "	..	113,191
Uruguay "	9,798	36,841			
Buenos Ayres "	35,858	102,516			
Chili "	22,253	75,749			
Peru "	33,747	158,444			
China and Hong Kong "	75,848	260,467			
British N. America "	118,152	308,678			
.. India "	73,609	308,275			
Australia "	66,223	806,512			
Other Countries "	257,961	804,587			
Total of Cloths, &c., of Wool only "	770,805	2,983,432	Total Declared Value:—		
Total of Cloths, &c., of Wool, mixed "	546,888	1,486,478	Enumerated Articles "	..	116,332,652
			Unenumerated Articles "	..	7,805,150
			All Articles "	..	124,137,812

ABSTRACT of TOTAL VALUE of ENUMERATED IMPORTS in each Month of 1862.

January	£3,156,921	July	£16,721,072
February	8,570,499	August	16,959,055
March	11,025,331	September	17,977,699
April	12,700,732	October	18,979,911
May	14,207,620	November	18,624,345
June	14,342,778	December	25,963,916

ABSTRACT of TOTAL VALUE of BRITISH EXPORTS in each Month of 1862.

January	£8,439,055	July	£12,131,801
February	8,320,059	August	12,829,687
March	9,664,649	September	11,396,327
April	9,822,888	October	9,846,835
May	11,298,587	November	9,761,510
June	9,769,441	December	10,807,033

REAL VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF GOLD AND SILVER BULLION.

ACCOUNT of the COMPUTED REAL VALUE of the IMPORTS and EXPORTS of GOLD and SILVER BULLION and SPECIE registered in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

IMPORTS.

COUNTRIES FROM WHICH IMPORTED.	GOLD.	SILVER.	TOTAL.
	£	£	£
Russia	756,842	7,712	764,554
Hanse Towns	422,020	1,473,518	1,895,538
Holland	43	163,836	163,879
Belgium	7,948	1,069,952	1,077,900
France	91,980	2,202,972	2,294,952
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	5,995	91,026	97,021
Spain and Canaries	12,344	10,348	22,692
Gibraltar	8,318	18,361	26,679
Malta	4,053	8,681	12,734
Turkey	427	2,508	2,935
Egypt	3,709	2,205	5,914
West Coast of Africa	99,922	5,925	105,847
British Possessions in South Africa	9,038	4,488	13,526
Australia	6,704,753	283	6,705,036
British Columbia	11,088	—	11,088
British North American Provinces	51,767	19,557	71,324
Mexico, South America (except Brazil), and West Indies	1,631,464	6,242,068	7,873,532
Brazil	2,69,902	87,844	357,746
United States	9,731,434	332,728	10,064,162
Other Countries	80,657	8,760	89,417
Total	£ 19,903,704	11,752,772	31,656,476

IMPORTS.

COUNTRIES TO WHICH EXPORTED.	GOLD.	SILVER.	TOTAL.
	£	£	£
Russia	1,797,973	57,428	1,855,401
Hanse Towns	30,374	213,622	243,996
Holland	68,018	357,022	425,040
Belgium	249,893	84,527	334,420
France	6,356,200	849,463	7,205,663
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	967,445	2,822	970,267
Spain and Canaries	1,392,694	5,384	1,398,078
Gibraltar	105,470	—	105,470
Malta	389	—	389
Turkey	1,124,096	905,025	2,029,121
Egypt	1,919,621	10,710,209	12,629,830
West Coast of Africa	28,615	25,757	54,372
British Possessions in South Africa	—	—	—
Australia	—	—	—
British Columbia	—	—	—
British North North American Provinces	283,380	18,741	302,121
Mexico, South America (except Brazil), and West Indies	1,216,617	26,634	1,243,251
Brazil	408,769	43,623	452,392
United States	36,670	858	37,528
Other Countries	25,739	13,113	38,852
Total	£ 16,011,963	13,314,228	29,326,191

DECLARED VALUE OF EXPORTS TO EACH COUNTRY.

AN ACCOUNT of the DECLARED VALUE of BRITISH and IRISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURES EXPORTED from the UNITED KINGDOM to each FOREIGN COUNTRY and BRITISH POSSESSION in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

FOREIGN:		United States:—	
Russia, Northern Ports	£2,885,576	Ports on the Atlantic, North } 21,072,659	
" Southern Ports	382,903	" Pacific South } 594,406	
" Ports on the North Pacific	600	Mexico 462,604	
Sweden '	549,577	Central America 182,282	
Norway	495,140	New Granada 810,970	
Denmark (including Iceland, &c.)	731,162	Venezuela 323,656	
Prussia	1,884,403	Ecuador 74,149	
Mecklenberg Schwerin	61,346	Peru 1,381,357	
Hanover	1,107,570	Chili 1,702,800	
Oldenburgh and Kniphausen	73,957	Brazil 4,446,776	
Hanse Towns	10,364,237	Uruguay 922,733	
Holland	6,114,862	Argentine Confederation ... 1,782,447	
Belgium	1,610,144	Northern Whale Fishery ... 105	
France	5,249,980	Total to Foreign Countries ... £92,226,392	
Portugal Proper	1,698,931		
" Azores	87,432		
" Madeira	60,177		
Spain	2,471,447		
" Canary Islands	131,210		
Italy:—		BRITISH POSSESSIONS:	
Sardinia (including the Island)	1,864,338	Heligoland £287	
Tuscany	1,034,435	Channel Islands 655,948	
Naples	1,321,339	Gibraltar 1,159,313	
Sicily		Malta and Gozo 704,073	
Adriatic Ports of Ancousa and		Ionian Islands 345,055	
the Romagna	294,175	Western Africa (British)	340,366
Papal Ports on the Mediter-		Ascension 8,688	
ranean		St. Helena 46,405	
Austrian Territories:—		Cape of Good Hope 1,828,659	
Venetia	993,669	Natal 236,864	
Ilyria, Croatia, and Dalmatia }		Mauritius 538,303	
Greece	343,500	Aden 45,297	
Turkey, European	4,408,910	India:—	
Natolia or Asia Minor	172,872	Bombay and Scinde ... }	
Wallachia and Moldavia	655,323	Madras }	
Syria and Palestine	2,480,640	Bengal and Pegu }	
Egypt	3,580	Singapore and the Eastern Straits	1,671,092
Tunis	43,754	Ceylon 671,219	
Algeria	171,424	Hong Hong 2,445,991	
Morocco	972,323	Labuan 2,583	
Western Africa (Foreign)	16,107	Australia:—	
Cape Verd Islands	2,812	West Australia 98,680	
Eastern Africa	351	South Australia 810,983	
Bourbon	31,586	Victoria 5,377,740	
Persia	1,416	New South Wales 2,429,851	
French Possessions in India	1,413,624	Queensland 53,297	
Dutch Possessions in India	5,973	Tasmania 367,644	
(Java, &c.)	674,235	New Zealand 569,066	
Other Possessions	13,060	British North America ... 3,727,350	
Philippine Islands	13,203	Bermudas 29,455	
Other Islands (St. Davids) ...	2,872,045	British West India Islands	1,815,799
Siam	33,967	British Guiana 571,685	
China (exclusive of Hong Kong)	2,257,194	Belize (British Honduras)	142,444
Islands in the Pacific	412,939	Falkland Islands 5,306	
Foreign West Indies		Total to British Possessions ... £43,664,835	
Hayti and St. Domingo		Total of Foreign Countries } £135,891,227	
		and British Possessions }	

EXCISE.

QUANTITIES of the several ARTICLES charged with DUTIES of EXCISE, and free of DUTY; the Quantities exported, and the Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, in the year ended 31st December, 1862.

ARTICLES.	Charged with Duty and Free of Duty.	Exported to Foreign Countries on Drawback, and Free of Duty.	Retained for Home Consumption.
ENGLAND AND WALES.			
Chicory cwt	8,037	...	8,037
Hops lbs.	*	9,138,261	...
Malt :—			
Charged with Duty bushels	37,379,250	169,897	36,237,835
" Used in Beer exported (estimated) "		971,518	
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation "		197,423	
Total "	37,781,780	1,388,838	36,442,942
Spirits :—			
Charged with Duty gallons	8,857,121	284,449	8,572,672
Free of Duty for exportation... .. "	952,991	952,991	...
Total "	9,810,112	1,237,440	8,572,672
Sugar (home made) cwt.	140	...	140
SCOTLAND.			
Hops "	*	421	...
Malt :—			
Charged with Duty bushels	1,684,203	23,560	1,538,104
" Used in Beer exported (estimated) "		122,539	
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation "		7,024	
Total "	4,923,283	153,123	4,770,160
Spirits :—			
Charged with Duty gallons	6,189,356	287,385	5,901,971
Free of duty for exportation... .. "	3,000,038	3,000,038	...
Total "	9,189,394	3,287,423	5,901,971
IRELAND.			
Malt :—			
Charged with duty bushels	2,054,719	7,486	2,047,233
" Used in Beer exported (estimated) "		...	
Free of Duty for distillation and exportation "		428,273	
Total "	2,482,992	7,486	2,475,506
Spirits :—			
Charged with Duty gallons	4,653,773	132	4,653,641
Free of Duty for exportation... .. "	149,425	149,425	...
Total "	4,803,198	149,557	4,653,641

* Hop duty repealed 3rd June, 1862.

ARTICLES.	Charged with Duty and Free of Duty.	Exported to Foreign Countries on Drawback, and Free of Duty.	Retained for Home Consumption.
UNITED KINGDOM.			
Chicory cwts.	8,037	...	8,037
Hops lbs.	*	9,138,682	...
Malt :—Charged with Duty ... bushels	41,118,172 }	193,457	39,823,172 }
" Used in Beer exported ... "		1,101,543	
Free of Duty for distillation, &c. ... "		204,447	
Total "	45,188,055	1,499,447	43,688,608
Spirits :—			
Charged with Duty gallons	19,700,250	571,966	19,128,284
Free of Duty for exportation... .. "	4,102,454	4,102,454	...
Total "	23,802,704	4,674,420	19,128,284
Sugar (home made) cwts.	140	...	140

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

AN ACCOUNT of the GROSS PUBLIC INCOME of the UNITED KINGDOM of GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND, in the Year ended the 30th day of June, 1862, and of the ACTUAL ISSUES or PAYMENTS within the same Period, exclusive of the Sums applied to the Redemption of Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt, and of the Advances and Repayments for Local Works, &c. (W. Peel.) 14th July, 1862.

INCOME.				EXPENDITURE.			
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Customs	23,644,000	0	0	Interest and Management of			
Excise	18,047,000	0	0	the Permanent Debt ...	23,839,656	17	6
Stamps	8,657,945	5	0	Terminable Annuities ...	1,868,192	16	2
Taxes (Land and Assessed)	3,154,000	0	0	Interest of Exchequer Bonds,			
Property Tax	10,549,000	0	0	1858 &c.	122,500	0	0
Post Office	3,535,000	0	0	Interest of Exchequer Bills	382,974	7	6
Crown Lands (Net) ...	296,000	0	0	Interest of Exchequer Deficiency Bills	10,021	0	10
Miscellaneous :—				Interest of Exchequer Ways and Means Bills	1,108	6	8
Produce of the Sale of Old Stores, &c.	598,984	0	4	Charges on Consol. Fund :—			
Money received from the Revenues of India, for Retired Pay, Pensions, &c.	130,000	0	0	Civil List	403,610	10	10
Amount received from the Bank of England ...	130,703	0	0	Annuities and Pensions ...	303,617	10	3
Miscellaneous Receipts, including Imprest and other Moneys	577,156	7	8	Salaries and Allowances ...	156,028	0	1
China War Expenses Indemnity	266,000	0	0	Diplomatic Salaries and Pensions	174,239	6	0
Total Revenue	69,685,788	13	0	Courts of Justice	694,819	19	10
Excess of Expenditure over Income in the Year ended 30th June, 1862 :—				Miscellaneous Charges :—			
Excess of Ordinary Expenditure	722,079	0	1	Drawback on Wine	386	0	3
Fortifications	1,120,000	0	0	Other Charges	207,630	3	11
				Supply Services :—			
				Army	15,474,789	10	9
				Navy	12,430,588	0	0
				Miscellaneous Civil Services	7,594,913	8	5
				Salaries, &c.	4,617,440	6	9
				Packet Service	841,920	11	6
				China	1,230,000	0	0
				Extraordinary Expenses of the late Russian War ...	53,430	15	10
				Total Ordinary Expenditure	70,407,867	13	1
				Expenses of Fortifications	1,120,000	0	0
				Total Expenditure	71,527,867	13	1
	£71,527,867	13	1				

* Hop duty repealed 3rd June, 1862.

ACCOUNTS OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

297

AN ACCOUNT of the BALANCES of the PUBLIC MONEY remaining in the EXCHEQUER on the 30th day of June, 1861 and 1862, &c.

INCOME.			EXPENDITURE.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Balances in the Exchequer on the 30th June, 1861	5,838,831	19 5	Issued to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt :—		
Money raised in the Year ended the 30th June, 1862.			Interest on Donations and Bequests ...	24,619	7 5
Funded Debt:—			Issued to pay off Exchequer Bonds, dated 8th May, 1858, (Series E.)	1,000,000	0 0
By the creation of Terminable Annuities ...	1,010,000	0 0	Exchequer Bills, (Supply) exchanged ...	5,836,400	0 0
Unfunded Debt:—			Exchequer Bills paid off in Money ...	37,700	0 0
Exchequer Bonds (Series I., payable 5th June, 1865) ...	1,000,000	0 0	Issued to pay off Ways and Means Bills ...	1,000,000	0 0
Exchequer Bills ...	6,836,400	0 0	Excess of ordinary Expenditure over Income in the Year ...	722,077	0 1
Exchequer Ways and Means Bills ...	1,000,000	0 0	Expenses of Fortifications	1,120,000	0 0
Repayments, on account of Sums advanced for the Purchase of Bullion, &c. ...	1,486,930	16 8	Balances in the Exchequer on the 30th June, 1862	6,104,378	14 0
Less advances for ditto ...	1,326,985	14 7			
Excess of Repayments ...	159,945	2 1			
	15,845,177	1 6		15,845,177	1 6

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

AN ACCOUNT of the GROSS PUBLIC INCOME of the UNITED KINGDOM of GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND, in the Year ended the 30th day of September, 1862, and of the ACTUAL ISSUES or PAYMENTS within the same Period, exclusive of the Sums applied to the Redemption of Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt, and of the Advances and Repayments for Local Works, &c. (Mr. Peel.) 5th February, 1863.

INCOME.			EXPENDITURE.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Customs ...	23,863,000	0 0	Interest and Management of the Permanent Debt ...	23,835,734	1 7
Excise ...	17,430,000	0 0	Terminable Annuities ...	1,857,364	6 3
Stamps ...	8,834,945	5 0	Exchequer Bonds, 1858, &c.	122,500	0 0
Taxes (Land and Assessed)	3,160,000	0 0	Interest of Exchequer Bills	485,520	7 6
Property Tax...	10,552,000	0 0	Interest of Deficiency Bills	10,021	0 10
Post Office ...	3,560,000	0 0	Interest of Ways and Means Bills ...	1,108	6 8
Crown Lands (Net) ...	296,521	0 8	Charges on Consol Fund:—		
Miscellaneous :—			Civil List ...	404,855	10 10
Produce of the Sale of Old Stores, &c. ...	617,536	19 0	Annuities and Pensions	287,761	5 7
Money received from the Revenues of India on account of the effective and non-effective charges of British Troops serving in that country...	345,000	0 0	Salaries and Allowances	155,371	6 6
Amount received from the Bank of England ...	130,703	0 0	Diplomatic Salaries, &c.	173,556	18 9
Miscellaneous Receipts, &c.	659,833	12 9	Courts of Justice ...	694,425	2 1
China War Indemnity ...	266,000	0 0	Miscellaneous Charges ...	202,647	11 4
Total Revenue	69,685,539	17 5	Supply Services:—		
Excess of Expenditure over Income in the Year ended 30th September, 1862 :—			Army ...	15,984,789	10 9
Excess of Ordinary Expenditure ...	1,054,399	0 1	Navy ...	12,310,588	0 0
Fortifications ...	1,070,000	0 0	Mis. Civil Services ...	7,743,977	11 4
			Salaries, &c., of Revenue Departments ...	4,552,280	6 0
			Packet Service ...	867,507	11 6
			China, Naval and Military Operations ...	1,050,000	0 0
			Total Ordinary Expenditure	70,739,938	17 6
			Expenses of Fortifications provided for by Money raised per Act 23 & 24 Vict. c. 109 ...	1,070,000	0 0
			Total Expenditure	71,809,938	17 6
	71,802,938	17 6			

AN ACCOUNT of the BALANCES of the PUBLIC MONEY remaining in the EXCHEQUER on the 30th day of June, 1861 and 1862.

INCOME.			EXPENDITURE.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Balances in the Exchequer on the 30th Sept., 1861	2,882,001	0 1	Issued to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, to be applied to the Redemption of Debt:—		
Money raised in the Year ended 30th Sept., 1862.			Interest on Donations and Bequests...	24,619	7 5
Funded Debt:—			Issued to pay off Exchequer Bonds, (Series E.)	1,000,000	0 0
By the creation of Terminable Annuities	1,070,000	0 0	Exchequer Bills (Supply) exchanged	5,836,400	0 0
Unfunded Debt:—			Ditto paid off in Money	29,800	0 0
Exchequer Bonds (Series I.) (payable 5th June, 1865)	1,000,000	0 0	Issued to pay off Ways and Means Bills	1,000,000	0 0
Exchequer Bills	6,836,400	0 0	Excess of ordinary Expenditure over Income	1,054,399	0 1
Exchequer Ways and Means Bills	1,000,000	0 0	Add, Expenses of Fortifications,	1,070,000	0 0
Repayments on account of Sums advanced for the purchase of Bullion, &c.	1,586,635	10 3	Balances in the Exchequer on the 30th Sept., 1862	3,169,398	3 2
Less, Advances for ditto	1,190,425	0 2			
Excess of Repayments over Advances	396,210	10 1			
	13,184,611	10 8		13,184,611	10 8

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

AN ACCOUNT of the GROSS PUBLIC INCOME of the UNITED KINGDOM of GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND, in the Year ended the 31st day of December, 1862, and of the ACTUAL ISSUES or PAYMENTS within the same Period, exclusive of the Sums applied to a Redemption of Funded or paying off Unfunded Debt, and of the Advances and Repayments for Local Works, &c.

INCOME.			EXPENDITURE.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Customs	24,036,000	0 0	Interest and Management of the Permanent Debt	23,828,014	6 6
Excise	17,534,000	0 0	Terminable Annuities	1,863,157	18 11
Stamps	8,913,945	5 0	Exchequer Bonds, 1858, &c.	123,750	0 0
Taxes (Land and Assessed)	3,148,000	0 0	Interest of Exchequer Bills	462,709	2 6
Property Tax	11,104,000	0 0	Interest of Deficiency Bills	11,646	0 10
Post Office	3,600,000	0 0	Interest of Ways and Means Bills	1,108	6 8
Crown Lands (Net)	298,521	0 8	Charges on Consol. Fund:—		
Miscellaneous:—			Civil List	405,147	10 0
Produce of the Sale of Old Stores, &c.	673,243	4 2	Annuities and Pensions	280,025	19 5
Amount received from the Revenues of India, on account of the effective and non-effective charges of British Troops serving in that country	493,000	0 0	Salaries and Allowances	155,852	15 7
Amount received from the Bank of England	130,703	0 0	Diplomatic Salaries	171,631	18 9
Miscellaneous Receipts, &c.	799,016	6 8	Courts of Justice	692,040	4 2
China War Indemnity	266,000	0 0	Miscellaneous Charges	184,830	12 1
Total Revenue	70,996,438	16 6	Supply services:—		
Excess of Expenditure over Income	515,123	16 11	Army	15,894,789	10 9
	71,511,552	13 5	Navy	11,880,588	0 0
			Mis. Civil Services	7,949,062	1 2
			Salaries, &c., of Revenue Departments	4,529,640	14 7
			Packet Service	797,507	11 6
			China, Naval and Military operations	1,050,000	0 0
			Marriage Portion of H.R.H. Princess Alice	30,000	0 0
			Total Ordinary Expenditure	70,341,552	13 5
			Expenses of Fortifications provided for by money raised per Act 23 & 24 Vict. c. 109	1,170,000	0 0
			Total Expenditure	71,511,552	13 5

AN ACCOUNT of the BALANCES of the PUBLIC MONEY remaining in the EXCHEQUER on the 31st day of December, 1861 and 1862.

INCOME.			EXPENDITURE.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Balances in the Exchequer on the 31st December, 1861	4,742,505	9 0	Issued to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, to be applied to the Redemption of Debt:—		
Money raised in the Year ended 31st Dec., 1862.			Interest on Donations and Bequests	25,021	17 8
Funded Debt:—			Issued to pay off Exchequer Bonds, dated 8th May, 1858 (Series E)... ..	1,000,000	0 0
By the creation of Terminable Annuities, to expire on the 5th April, 1855	970,000	0 0	Exchequer Bills (Supply) exchanged	5,836,400	0 0
Unfunded Debt:—			Exchequer Bills paid off in Money	18,100	0 0
Exchequer Bonds, (Series I.), payable 5th June, 1865	1,000,000	0 0	Issued to pay off Ways and Means Bills	1,000,000	0 0
Exchequer Bills issued per Act 24 Vict. c. 5, dated 11th March, 1862	5,836,400	0 0	Expenses of Fortifications, per Act 23 & 24 Vict. c. 109	1,170,000	0 0
Exchequer Bills to replace, in part, Bills paid off in money ...	1,000,000	0 0	Less excess of Income over ordinary Expenditure..	654,876	3 1
Repayments on Account of Sums advanced for the Purchase of Bulion, and for Local Works, under various Acts of Parliament ...	1,505,805	8 10	Balances in the Exchequer on the 31st Dec. 1862...	5,669,865	3 7
Less Advances for ditto.	979,479	19 8			
Excess of Repayments over Advances ...	525,605	9 2			
	14,074,510	18 2		14,074,510	18 2

TREASURE-TROVE.

Copies of Memorials presented to the Lords of the Treasury from any Societies or Private Individuals, and copy of any Treasury minute on the subject of Treasure-trove, and of any Circulars issued by the Secretary of State for the Home Department on the subject of Treasure-trove. (Lord Talbot de Malahide.) 1 August, 1861. (290.)

On the 30th April, 1858, the commissioners of supply of the county of Inverness passed a minute, expressing their opinion that it would be desirable that the Treasury should make it known that the finders of historical relics shall, on delivering up the same to the proper officers of the Crown, be paid a sum equal to the actual value thereof. A resolution to the same effect was passed by the county of Renfrew, and made the subject of a petition by the Archæological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland, by Merton College, Oxford, the Yorkshire Philosophical Society, and several private individuals. Consequently, on the 16th July, 1861, the following Treasury minute was made on the subject:—

COPY of TREASURY MINUTE, dated 16th July, 1861.

Write to the solicitor with reference to his report of 15th of November last and subsequent communications upon the subject of treasure-trove, that my lords, agreeing with him in the tenor of his remarks with reference to the Home Office circular, have requested that it may be recalled, and

that it seems desirable now that such a notification should be issued in lieu thereof as will effect the object contemplated by this board when the circular of the Home Office was first suggested.

It appears from the statement of the solicitor that the process by which the right of the Crown to treasure-trove can be established is difficult and expensive, and it would seldom happen that the value of the treasure recovered would repay the cost of recovery.

The object which my lords had in view in their proceedings with reference to this matter was to induce parties who may be the finders of treasure, and who frequently belong to the labouring class (instead of selling the treasure, as is often the case, under the apprehension that it may be claimed, at less than its intrinsic or metallic value, to the nearest public-house keeper or silversmith in whose hands it is likely to be melted down), to bring or transmit it to some person authorized on the part of the Crown to receive it, and to ensure to the finder its ascertained intrinsic or metallic value.

My lords are of opinion that they would not be justified in going further than this.

In many cases it must happen that treasure-trove possesses no value whatever beyond the value of the metal composing it, and even in the case of treasure possessing greater value as an object of antiquarian or historical interest, it would be difficult to ascertain correctly such value, and it would scarcely come within the province of this board to become the purchasers of rare and curious coins.

It seems probable that if it were generally known by the class of persons who usually are the finders of such treasure that, by bringing it to some recognized official, such as an inspector of police, they would be sure to receive the intrinsic value from the Crown, to whom the treasure rightfully belongs, it would in many cases be sold to Government; and, assuming the intrinsic value only to be given for it, no loss would accrue, even if the treasure possessed no value beyond that of the metal.

On the other hand, should it possess antiquarian value, it would remain for this Board to deal with it in such manner as might appear desirable, either by offering it at its intrinsic value to the British Museum, or to some local museum; in which case the treasure would be preserved and become available as an object of interest, without any loss being sustained by the public.

Cases would, no doubt, occur in which persons, finding rare and valuable coins, would dispose of them at a higher price than their intrinsic value. For such cases, it would not be desirable to make provision, as the treasure would find its way into some collection, either public or private.

In any circular to be now issued it will be proper that a correct and plain description should be given of the term treasure-trove, and of the objects which fall within that denomination.

It should be stated that the superintendent or inspector at the nearest police-station has been authorized to receive treasure-trove; that it will be his duty to transmit the same, with a report of the circumstances of the discovery, through the proper channel, to the solicitor of the Treasury; that the intrinsic value of the treasure will then be ascertained at the Mint, and that my lords will remit the amount to the finder through the agency of the police.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Reports by Her Majesty's Secretaries of Embassy and Legation on the Manufactures, Commerce, &c., of the Countries in which they reside.

DENMARK (ICELAND, GREENLAND, &c.)

MR. MANLEY, her Majesty's Secretary of Legation at Copenhagen, gave some account of the productions, material resources, and trade, &c., of the Danish possessions in the North, viz., Iceland, Greenland, and the Faroe Islands.

Iceland.—The population of Iceland, which in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries amounted to upwards of 100,000, numbers at this present time about 70,000 only; it has, however, gradually increased again since the beginning of the century. In 1801, it was 47,207; the 2nd of November, 1840, 57,094; the 2nd of November, 1845, 58,558, of which latter number 22,238 in the bailiwicks of the north and east, 21,364 in those of the south, and 14,956 in the bailiwicks of the west. Of these, 45,950 individuals belonged to the agricultural class; 3773 gained their livelihood by fishing; 588 to the commercial class; and 435 to that of industry.

The area of the island is about 1800 square miles. It is divided into three departments or bailiwicks, viz., Sonder-Amtel, Vester-Amtel, and Norder and Oster-Amtel. The capital is Reikiavik, containing a population of about 50,000 souls. The other principal towns are Stappen and Madruvel. The coast presents innumerable capes and narrow gulfs; of the former, the principal are—North Cape, on the north-west coast; Cape Langness, on the north-east; Hekla Reikianess and Ouvardness, on the west. The principal gulfs are the Skager fiord and the Hval fiord, on the north; the Isa fiord, the Arnar fiord, the Tseyde fiord, and the Sona fiord, on the west. A vast chain of barren mountains, rising to the height of 6000 feet, covers nearly the entire surface of the island; of these, ten are volcanoes, the principal of which is Mount Hecla. The constant eruptions that have taken place have totally changed the appearance of the surface. Springs of boiling water, mixed with mud and stones, are found in several places; the principal of these are the Great Geyser and the Strok. The chief rivers are, the Laxaa, the Thiorsa, and the Skaptaa; there are also a vast number of lakes. Iceland has an abundance of harbours and places of anchorage; the principal are, on the west coast, Fara fiord (on the banks of which is situated the capital, Reikiavik), Brude fiord, and Ise fiord; on the north, Hrina floi, Skager fiord, and Of fiord; on the east, Vapna fiord, Reyda fiord, and Bern fiord.

The chief source of revenue of Iceland is sheep-breeding and fishing. Of sheep and lambs, there were in 1845 about 700,000; at the same time, of oxen and cows, about 25,000, and 32,000 horses. The breeding of sheep is the greatest in the north; they produce in general a great quantity of wool. The oxen and cows are principally without horns. The Iceland ponies are very good, though in general small. In some parts pasture, during the summer, is much more fertile than would be supposed from the general aspect of the country; this, in a great measure, is produced by the hot volcanic soil, which throws out in many places warm rushing springs. Little or no grain is produced, and fruit-trees do not in general succeed. Potatoes and other vegetables, chiefly cabbages, are much cultivated.

tivated. A kind of moss, known by the name of Iceland moss, is much used in some parts as food. The mountains contain, sulphur, iron, copper, lead, porphyry, agates, &c. A great quantity of porcelain clay is also produced. Formerly much profit was derived from the sulphur mines, but for some years they have not been worked; but recently, however, I understand some English gentlemen have obtained permission from the Danish Government to work the mines in the south part of the island. The meadows furnish peat, and a kind of carbonized fossil wood. There are no trees in Iceland, only bushes in some places, which do not attain more than a few feet in height.

The principal fish caught on the coast of Iceland are cod and dog-fish. The larger kind of cod-fish, which weighs from 12 to 40 lbs., approaches the west coast in great numbers in the middle of winter, and in still greater numbers in March and April. The most productive time for fishing is from the beginning of February to the 12th of May. From the middle of May till the middle of August, cod-fish are caught by French, Danish, Irish, and Belgian fishing-boats on the exterior banks which surround the island to a considerable distance. I must here remark that foreign fishing-boats are not permitted to fish within a certain distance; I believe, about fourteen or fifteen English miles from the coast. Of foreign fishing-vessels, the French are the most numerous, amounting, in general, to about 300. There are always at least two French men-of-war on the station to protect their fisheries and act as police. Of English, or rather Irish fishing-vessels, there are about 100. The rivers produce an immense quantity of salmon, sea-trout, and other fish; of these, a great number are dried, and exported to Denmark and other countries. Some increase in the exports of dried and cured salmon has taken place of late years, in consequence of some Scotch firms, Messrs. Ritchie, and others, having formed large establishments in Iceland for the curing and preserving of fish.

Of wild beasts there are reindeer (introduced some years ago into the island, and said to have multiplied considerably) and foxes. Of birds, eiderdown ducks, wild swans, and other kinds of water-fowl and ptarmigans, &c.

Trade.—The Icelandic trade, which up to the year 1774 was let by the Danish Government to different commercial companies, was in that year redeemed by King Christian VII. for the sum of 308,000 rix-dollars, and carried on for his own account till 1788, when a so-called free trade was introduced into Iceland; this was, however, limited to the Danish European States, foreign vessels being subject to heavy dues, almost amounting to prohibition.

By the law of the 15th April, 1854, these dues were repealed, and the foreign trade with Iceland placed nearly on the same footing as the Danish monarchy; the only duty to which all vessels, whether foreign or native (with a few exceptions, viz., those countries in which reciprocity is not shown to Danish vessels), are now subject being 2 rix-dollars (about 4s. 6d.) per commercial last (two English tons) on every vessel entering Icelandic ports, whether in ballast or cargo, and on whatever description of cargo. By this law also, foreign vessels over thirty tons burden are permitted to participate in the coasting trade, and in the trade between Iceland and the other portions of the Danish monarchy.

The chief articles of export are fish, salted and dried, wool, train-oil, tallow, eiderdown and swans' quills; of import—rye, meal, cakes, and

biscuits, coffee, sugar, brandy, and other spirits. The principal foreign countries that take part in the Icelandic trade are England, Norway, Hamburg, and Spain.

The annual average value of the Icelandic export trade before the introduction of free trade with foreign countries was estimated as follows:—Fish, 400,000 rix-dollars; wool, 230,000 rix-dollars; woollen goods, 70,000 rix-dollars; tallow, 130,000 rix-dollars; oil and fat, 150,000 rix-dollars; salt meat, 50,000 rix-dollars; skins, 20,000 rix-dollars.

The official value of goods exported from Denmark into Iceland in 1849 is estimated at 437,470 rix-dollars; and the official value of the exports from Iceland into Denmark in the year at 699,913 rix-dollars. In 1850, at 479,691 rix-dollars and 775,461 rix-dollars. In 1851, 467,775 rix-dollars and 851,603 rix-dollars.

The Icelanders possess great industrial and mechanical skill, and manufacture not only the greater part of their own clothing, but, as it appears by the annexed returns, even export a certain amount of woollen goods, such as stockings, jackets, &c., to Denmark.

GREENLAND.—Greenland is divided into two portions or inspectorates, the Northern (“Egedesminde”) and Southern Inspectorate (“Juhanahaal”). This country has from time immemorial been inhabited by the Esquimaux race. The population, according to the census of the 1st October, 1855, amounted to 9,644 natives, and 248 Europeans, principally Danish. Of these, 3,516 in the Northern Inspectorate, of which 3,388 natives, and about 128 Danes; and about 6,128 natives, and 120 Europeans, in the Southern Inspectorate. The inhabitants of Greenland, till the foundation of the Danish commercial establishment about 100 years ago, had no regular commercial intercourse with Europe, but provided themselves with their own necessities. The late trade maintained with the Danes has not worked so great a change in their material condition as might have been expected. Their principal food is still, and will, probably, always continue to be flesh, and their clothes hides. The greater facility with which they have, by trade, been enabled to procure timber has, in some cases, been the means of increasing the number of dwellings, but has not otherwise in the least changed their mode of construction. One article alone, firearms, can be said to have had any material influence, viz., with regard to the chase, and consequently upon their economy.

With respect to clothing, it is true that woollen and cotton wares are pretty generally used; and European articles of food of a farinaceous description, bread, groats, also coffee, sugar, tobacco, are consumed, to a certain extent; none of these, however, can be said to have become an article of necessity with them, but are rather considered as luxuries. The Greenlanders have no other means of procuring the necessities of life than are afforded them by fishing and the chase. The necessary implements for these are so simple, that each producer generally makes his own; it is only here and there that a few old and infirm people are to be found who build canoes, &c., for other people. The same is the case with regard to their dwellings, and the preparation of skins for clothing, the latter of which are usually prepared by the women of each family.

NORTH GREENLAND.—The whole of North Greenland extends from about 68° to 73° north latitude. The climate is consequently various; in many parts it depends a great deal on the winds from Baffin's Bay and Davis' Straits; this is so much the case, that sometimes during the most severe

winters the temperature will vary in a short space of time from 30° Reaumur of cold to several degrees of heat: this change is generally produced by the south-east wind, which has always a great influence on the temperature in North Greenland. In comparison with Denmark, it is calculated that the coldest months in this country, viz., January and February, answer to the month of May in Omenak, which is about the centre of North Greenland; that the warmest month in Omenak answers to April in Denmark; and that the coldest half of the year in Denmark, viz., from November to April, is 2° Reaumur warmer than the warmest half of the year, viz., from May to October, in Omenak. The population of North Greenland has in twenty years, viz., from 1830 to 1850, increased about 46 per cent. In 1850 the population was 3,299 natives, and about 100 Danes; and in 1855, as mentioned above, 3,516 natives, and about 128 Danes. These are spread over a great extent of country, and, with the exception of six places, where there about 100 inhabitants, there are only, on an average, about 40 to each inhabited place. These inhabited places, consisting of a rude kind of huts and tents, are always situated near the sea, from 50 to 100 yards from the shore. The interior of the land is entirely uninhabited. The Danish colonies extend along the coast to about 73° north latitude. The east coast, which is always surrounded by ice, is only inhabited by a few Esquimaux families. About fifty Danes have intermarried with Greenlanders, and live in huts of Greenland construction, though with some ameliorations. Mountains rising to an elevation of 4000 feet, and covered with ice, prevent, in most parts, all entrance into the interior of the country. There are several large bays, the chief of which is Disco Bay, about fifty English miles long. The rivers are the Baal and the Rummulpotten, which last divides North from South Greenland.

Of all the animals which furnish the Esquimaux with their necessities of life, the seal occupies by far the most important place. There is hardly any season of the year in which some of these animals are not to be found in the vicinity of the shore, though it is true the greater portion depart in July, August, and September. According to an average calculation of four years, viz., from 1845 to 1849, the annual number of seal-skins for sale in North Greenland is 35,000, amounting in value to 94,000 rix-dollars. Besides these skins, together with the fat, furnishing the natives with the means of procuring other articles of necessity and luxury, the flesh of the seal forms their chief daily and favourite food, and the skin the principal material for their clothing. Besides the common seal, there are in North Greenland two other kinds of a larger description, the *Phoca Groenlandica* and the *Phoca Barbata*, remarkable for their size, which is double that of the common seal, and whose skin is indispensable for the inhabitants for their tents, canoes, &c. The latter, whose skin is the most valuable, is only taken in a few places near the extreme coast and in the open sea, and in very small quantities. As the greater part of the skins of these larger kinds of seals is used in the country, it is difficult to calculate how many are taken; yearly, the value of the skins offered for sale is about 10,300 rix-dollars. Besides seals, several hundreds of dolphins and narvals, or sea-unicorns, are taken yearly on the coast of North Greenland, whose flesh and skin also serve as food to the Esquimaux, and the oil for lamps. The latter, whose teeth are very valuable, are taken in the greatest quantities in the Omenak fiord, where they generally appear in November.

The total number of seals taken yearly in North Greenland is calculated

at something over 50,000, with the produce of which, together with that of dolphins and narvals, &c., the Greenlanders, after having first provided themselves with their most important food, light, fodder for their dogs (an indispensable beast in a Greenlander's establishment), for nine months of the year, as well as materials for harness, summer dwellings, &c., are in a position to furnish produce for trade to the value of about 113,000 rix-dollars.

Whales were formerly taken by Greenlanders with harpoons and bladders from their canoes, but this mode of capture has, for some time past, quite fallen into disuse, and very few, if any, whales, are now ever taken by the natives. The Danish whale-fishery off the coast of North Greenland, which was formerly, and especially from 1790 to 1810, of great importance, has since gradually decreased, and may now be said to have altogether ceased.

In comparison to the sea, the land produces but very small resources, and these are entirely derived from the chase, the principal object of which is the reindeer. These are not spread equally over the whole country; they are generally shot by the Greenlanders in summer, the greater part in the more southern districts of North Greenland. It is calculated that from 8000 to 9000 are killed yearly; of these about one-half the skins are sold, and the other half employed by the natives for their tents, sledges, &c. Fresh reindeer meat is bought by the Danes for 3 skillings (about $\frac{1}{2}$ d.) per lb. Of foxes there are two varieties, the white and the blue, the skin of which is a valuable article of trade. In the latter colour there is a great difference with respect to the quality of the skins, which for trading purposes are divided into three numbers. The best are those of a dark colour and with long hair. The best skins fetch in the European market from 16 to 17 rix-dollars each, and sometimes as much as 27 rix-dollars. Foxes which are intended to furnish skins for trade are only killed from November till March, as at other times the skins are out of season, the hair short, and of a dirty grey colour. They are sometimes caught in traps in the open fields; but the greater part are shot. From 400 to 500 skins, the greater part blue, are exported annually from North Greenland, of the value of about 2000 rix-dollars.

About thirty white bears are killed annually in the northern inspectorate. They are generally found in the ice. In North Greenland there are no means for breeding cattle, and no possibility of cultivating any kind of plant, in such a way, at least, as it would serve as food for the inhabitants. There are but few minerals of any economical importance; some lead-stone has been discovered, and of late years a little coal has been produced, which has furnished a certain amount of fuel to the inhabitants. There are no trade localities in North Greenland to which articles of trade are brought for sale. The exchange takes place by means of paper money of the respective value of 1 rix-dollar, 24 skillings, 12 skillings, and 6 skillings, which are issued by the Direction.

The means of communication are by a rough kind of sledges, drawn by dogs from four to twelve in number, which sometimes, over even ice, perform fifteen or sixteen miles in an hour, though the average rate is not more than seven or eight miles. The prices of seal skins in North Greenland were formerly from 6 to 12 skillings ($1\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 3d.) a-piece, but have lately increased from 22 to 30 skillings; reindeer skins from 7d. to 1s. 2d. each; blue-fox skins from 7d. to 2s. 3d.; uncleaned eider down is about 7d. per lb.

SOUTH GREENLAND.—The most southern point of South Greenland, Cape Farewell, is situated at $59^{\circ} 45'$ north latitude, and $56^{\circ} 35'$ west longitude. There is a great difference in the climate between South and North Greenland. At Julianahaal, in 1853, the greatest heat in the shade was 16° Reaumur. In the winter of 1854–55, which was very severe in the northern part of Greenland, the greatest cold was 17° Reaumur. There is much more snow and rain than in the north; the weather is more changeable, and there are frequent storms of wind and snow; communication is consequently more difficult, and for some months rendered almost impossible. Notwithstanding its more southern situation, hardly any plant or grain will thrive; this is principally owing to the long time the snow remains on the ground. The produce of South Greenland is very nearly of the same kind as that of the northern inspectorate, only it is much less in proportion to the number of inhabitants than in the latter. The increase of the population from 1830 to 1850 was not so great as in North Greenland; it amounted to about 25 per cent. only. From 1852 to 1855 it had, on the other hand, decreased from 6255 to 6128 souls. This decrease was chiefly owing to the scarcity of provisions which prevailed during that period.

The population of South Greenland is distributed over a space of upwards of 600 miles. The usual distance between the inhabited portions is from 30 to 35 miles, though in some instances there is an interval of from 45 to 65 miles. The total number of inhabited places in South Greenland is 130, consequently the amount of inhabitants in each spot is very small. In 1855 it was as follows:—One place, with about 300 inhabitants; 3 ditto, between 201 and 300; 19 ditto, between 101 and 200; 36 ditto, between 26 and 50; 60 ditto, about 25; altogether, 130 places, with an average population of 48 souls to each. As mentioned above, the produce of South Greenland is considerably less in proportion to the number of inhabitants than in the Northern Inspectorate; it had, however, to the year 1852, steadily increased. The reason for this was to be attributed in a great measure to the greater facilities that were afforded to trade by the establishment of a greater number of market-places. Since the year 1852 the produce has again decreased. The number of trading-places are 6 larger and 27 smaller ones.

According to the average of five years, viz., from 1852 to 1857, the annual produce brought to market is as follows:—Fat of seals and dolphins, &c., 4909 tonde; fat of different kinds of whales, 198 tonde; fat of dog and cod fish, 506 tonde; bear skins, 19 pieces; fox skins, 1858 pieces; seal skins, 11,984 pieces; reindeer skins, 6293 pieces; unbleached eider-down, 2866 lbs.; birds' feathers, 3713 lbs. According to calculation, the number of seals taken yearly in South Greenland is 42,000, of which, 18,250 of the larger, and 24,000 of the smaller sort. Upon an average, this number of animals may be said to give about, 3,500,000 lbs. of flesh, and 7600 tonde of fat, of which latter 4600 tonde are dedicated to trade, and the remaining 3000 tonde are employed by the Greenlanders partly for food and partly for lamps. The best season for seals is from September to December, when from 20,000 to 24,000 are usually taken. The time they are the most scarce is from January till April, in which period generally from 6000 to 8000 of the smallest kind only are captured. The greater part are taken from canoes by means of two instruments: the harpoon, made of bone or iron; and a large spear, with which the animal is killed, after having first been struck by the harpoon.

Whale-fishery, as in North Greenland, has nearly ceased. In the three years, from 1849 to 1851, there were only six whales taken; in the following three years, none at all; and from that time to 1857, three whales only. The principal fish taken in South Greenland are dog-fish, a large kind of cod-fish, and salmon. Of dog-fish, about 3000 are caught yearly, the greater part in the autumn. They vary in size from three to seven ells in length. The average quantity of train oil produced by each fish is about $\frac{1}{2}$ tonde. The last few years this fishing has increased. The larger kind of cod fish ("kublian") are taken in great numbers; they vary in size from 2 to 20 lbs.; about 200,000 are caught annually. Besides the above, a great quantity of smaller fish are caught in summer, which are dried and kept for winter food.

The number of reindeer killed has much decreased within the last few years. During the period of five years, from 1840 to 1845, it was calculated that, on an average, 16,000 were killed yearly, whereas, from the period 1851 to 1855, about half that number only, annually. They are generally shot a long way up in the country, and, consequently, from the difficulty of conveying the animals to their huts, a great part is often left to waste on the ground. As in North Greenland, there are two kinds of foxes, the white and the blue. Since the year 1830, the average number killed yearly is about 1200 blue and 600 white. The greater part are taken in the neighbourhood of the Tunnudliorbik, Igalliko, and Lichtenan fiords. The best year was from 1831 to 1832, when 2300 were killed. There are but few bears in South Greenland, the average number of skins for sale yearly only amounting to 16. Quantities of sea birds frequent the coast in large flocks during the winter, and are of great importance to the inhabitants, as they furnish them with winter clothing and food. Of these, the eider-down duck is taken in the greatest numbers, and is the most valuable. In the year 1855, 29,700 eider-down ducks and 68,550 of a smaller kind of sea-birds were taken.

According to calculation, the yearly produce of the chase and fishing in North and South Greenland together is as follows:—Teals of various descriptions, from 90,000 to 100,000; dolphins and narvals, &c., from 400 to 500; whales, from 2 to 3; reindeer, from 10,000 to 20,000; foxes, from 1000 to 3000; bears, from 30 to 60; dog-fish, from 10,000 to 30,000.

Trade.—The trade, which is a monopoly of the Danish Government, was instituted about the middle of last century, at the same time as the religious missions. In consequence of this monopoly, it is in the power of the Danish Government, not only to fix the prices of the goods, but also to determine the kind of goods to be imported into Greenland; but the principle I believe generally followed, is to select articles most adapted to the manner of living of the inhabitants, and to fix the prices with relation to the importance they have for them, viz., by reckoning articles of luxury highest, and but little profit on articles most generally required for the amelioration of their houses, capture of seals, &c. According to an extract of the taxes of the commercial year 1853-54, the prices of provisions imported into Greenland were as follows:—Butter, 42 skillings per lb.; peas, about 11 rix-dollars per tonde; groats, 13 rix-dollars per tonde; common ship-bread, $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb.; fire-arms of different sorts, from 13 rix-dollars 43 skillings to 22 rix-dollars each; gunpowder, 34 skillings per lb.; lead, 11 skillings per lb.; coffee, 28 skillings per lb.; double-refined sugar and candy, 20 skillings per lb.; Congo tea, 1 rix-dollar per lb.; figs, 10 skillings per lb. Of mercury,

amongst which white shirting, 15 skillings the ell; unbleached ditto, 12 skillings. Of timber, 52 sorts, planks from 27 to 48 skillings a piece. Different sorts of coal, amongst others English coal valued at 3 rix-dollars 48 skillings per tonde; but sold to the Greenlanders at 48 skillings per tonde in order to promote its application for stoves and fire-places.

The total value of the produce of Greenland imported into Denmark in six years, from 1850 to 1855, is as follows:—1850, 353,262 rix-dollars; 1851, 347,967 rix-dollars; 1852, 348,326 rix-dollars; 1853, 356,340 rix-dols.; 1854, 335,725 rix-dols.; 1855, 494,581 rix-dols. It must be remarked that the prices in those years, on some of the Greenland productions, have undergone a great change: thus, light-brown train oil has risen from 26 dollars 93 skillings to 40 dollars 28 skillings; and reindeer skins, from 2 rix-dollars 91 skillings to 5 rix-dollars 17 skillings. The principal articles imported from Greenland are, train oil, seal, reindeer, and fox skins. The chief articles exported from Denmark to Greenland are, corn, bread, coffee, tobacco, sugar, wood, and brandy. The annual value of the export trade, according to an average of five years, from 1851 to 1855, is 164,251 dollars.

FAEROE ISLANDS.—These islands, thirty-five in number, are situated in the Atlantic Ocean between Iceland and the Shetland Islands. Seventeen only of them are inhabited: these are Strömo, containing 2162 inhabitants; Tydero, 1156; Ostero, 1909; Baago, 649; Sando, 528; Bordo, 304; Kalsoe, 196; Nolsoe, 149; Kuno, 149; Vederö, 134; Myggenas, 99; Fuglö, 88; Svino, 82; Skino, 61; Hesto, 50; Kolter, 44; and Storo Dimon, 21: the total population, according to the census of the 24th June, 1845, being 7781. It has increased by 2500 since the beginning of this century.

The language is an ancient dialect of the North; but that of the church, schools, and courts of justice, is Danish. These islands are formed of rocks, and covered only in places with a very thin bed of soil; the coast in general is steep, and presents innumerable promontories, mounting to a height of 2000 feet above the level of the sea. The interior of the islands is formed of a kind of terraces, the lowest only of which are capable of cultivation. The air is foggy, and the weather in general variable; but the winter is usually so mild that sheep and horses are left out. The mean temperature is, however, only 7 deg. and 8 deg. Reaumur. Of grain, the Faeroe Islands only produce barley, and that does not generally ripen well. Potatoes and turnips are also cultivated, and succeed better. The principal sources of revenue are sheep-breeding, fishing, and wild-fowl shooting.

On the islands of Tuderö, Myggenas, and Tindholmen, some coal has been found; but it is only on the north part of the former island that it is of any economical importance; there the beds are of considerable extent, and the coal generally of a better quality than the Swedish, though inferior to the English; there is also a considerable quantity of peat. The principal fish caught are cod and herrings. Some seals are also taken.

Trade.—The trade was formerly a royal monopoly, but by the law of 21st March, 1855, that monopoly was repealed, and a free trade instituted; the only duty to which foreign vessels (with some exceptions) are now subject being two rix-dollars per commercial last on the burthen of the vessel. The annual average exports from the islands are as follows:—6900 lbs. birds' feathers; 19,540 lispunds cod fish, salted and dried; 1180 tonde fresh oil; 2154 lispunds tallow; 77,635 woollen shirts;

18,635 pairs of woollen stockings. The official value of the exports from Denmark to the Faroe Islands before the institution of free trade was estimated at about 72,500 rix-dollars annually; the value of the imports at 180,000 rix-dollars. The inhabitants manufacture by hand woollen waist-coats and stockings, of which a considerable number are exported to Denmark.

PRUSSIA.

Mr. Lowther, her Majesty's Secretary of Legation, prepared for Lord A. Loftus the following statistics of the kingdom of Prussia.

The kingdom of Prussia, on the accession of King Frederick William IV., extended over 5,082·57 square miles (one German mile being equal to $4\frac{1}{2}$ English miles), and contained in the first year of his reign a population of 14,928,501 souls; since then there have been added to it, in 1850, the country of Hohenzollern (21·16 square miles), and Jadegebeit (0·7 square miles). On the ascension of King William the kingdom extended over 5,103·80 square miles.

A census is taken every three years, at the beginning of December, according to the stipulations of the Zollverein treaty, and the following were the results from 1840 to 1858:—1840, 14,928,501; 1843, 15,471,084; 1846, 16,112,938; 1849, 16,331,187; 1852, 16,935,420; 1855, 17,202,831; 1858, 17,739,913.

The last census shows an increase of 537,032, or 3·12 per cent. It is to be remarked that Prussia is the fifth in rank of the great European Powers, as regards extent of territory. Russia extends over 100,429·46; Austria over 11,752·22; France over 9,619·80; Great Britain over 5,749·94; Prussia, 5,103·80 square miles. Two of the eight provinces of which Prussia is composed, do not belong to the German Confederation; thus the Confederate population of Prussia amounted at the end of 1858 to 13,578,258, while the Confederate population of Austria in 1857 was 12,900,919.

The kingdom of Prussia consists of eight provinces, 994 towns, and 335 rural districts; there were, in 1858, 5,250,124 inhabitants in the towns, and 14,487,779 in the rural districts; the municipal population has increased 0·72, which is the same degree in which the rural population has decreased; 9,822 persons emigrated, and 3,462 immigrated; there were 730,170 children born, of which 61,596 were natural children; in 1856 there were 625,792 born, of which 45,939 were natural children, and in 1857, 703,540, of which 54,260 were natural children. In 1858 there were 519,728 deaths. Of the total population, there were 8,837,012 males, and 8,902,901 females, showing an excess of 65,889 females over males of the ages from 17 to 32, and from 46 upwards, a much larger proportion of men over 40 die than women.

There were 10,848,510 Evangelicals, 6,618,978 Roman Catholics, 1331 of the Greek faith; 14,052 Mennonites (of which 8618 were in the regency of Danzig); 14,608 Freethinkers and German Catholics; 17 Mahometans; 3 Heathens, and 242,416 Jews. During the years 1856 to 1858 the Jews increased 3·49, the Roman Catholics 3·13, the Evangelicals 3·12 per cent. The greater part of the Jews are in the regencies of Posen, Bromberg, Marienwerder, Oppeln, and Berlin. The greater part of the Mennonites are in the regency of Danzig; the greater part of the Freethinkers or German Catholics are in the regency of Liegnitz; there are none in the regencies of Stralsund, Münster, Cologne, and Aix-la-Chapelle. Of the

23,388 prisoners confined in the 40 prisons of the kingdom, only 264 were Jews at the end of December, 1859.

It is reckoned there are 3,501,393 children who go to school, from the ages of 6 to 24; this is 19·74 per cent. Of people capable of military service, there were (a), belonging to the standing army, from 20 to 24 years of age, 778,454, or 8·30 per cent.; (b) belonging to the reserve, and the first call of Landwehr, from 25 to 32 years of age, 1,077,958, or 12·23 per cent.; (c) belonging to the second call, from 33 to 39, 872,174, or 9·87 per cent.

The military population was 202,673, of which 794 were Jews. There were 13,297 deaf and dumb—7391 males, and 5906 females; 10,205 blind—5283 males, 4923 females. Of the total population there were 2,400,074 who spoke a foreign language, and 15,339,838 who spoke German as their language; thus the proportion was 86·47 German to 13·53 per cent. non-German. Austria has a population of 36,000,000, of which about 8,000,000 are Germans; the non-German population is about 78 per cent. The following statistics relative to the extent, population, and religion of the provinces of Prussia and of the regencies, are taken from official sources, and, unless specially mentioned, refer to the year 1858; the reports for July, 1861, not having yet been delivered.

The Constitution.—The form of government in Prussia is monarchical, but limited by the Constitution of 31st January, 1850, and sworn to by his Majesty King Frederick William IV. on the 6th February, 1850. According to the Constitution, the person of the King is inviolable; the law-giving power is exercised by his Majesty and the Diet in common; the executive power belongs to him alone. He names and dismisses the ministers, summons the Diet, opens or prorogues their sittings, and can dissolve the House of Deputies, but he cannot dissolve the First Chamber. He has chief command of the whole army, and makes the nominations to the posts in the army as well as to the other branches of the Government, and can declare war, make peace, and enter into treaties with foreign governments. He can also diminish punishments and can pardon; he can also confer decorations. The Crown is hereditary in the male line. The King is of age at eighteen (the other princes are of age at twenty-four), and he can govern, having taken a vow before the Diet that he will maintain the Constitution entire, and that he will govern in conformity with its stipulations and the laws of the country. If the King is not of age, or is prevented from governing, his nearest male relation assumes the regency, and has to take the above oath before the summoned Diet.

The ministers have to countersign every act of the King's connected with the Government. Under extraordinary circumstances the King can issue ordinances which have the validity of laws, but which must afterwards be sanctioned by the Diet. The ministers are responsible, but there exists no law on the subject. The Diet chosen, according to electoral laws, from the people, is employed in giving its assent with regard to the formation of laws and on the subject of finance. It consists of the "Herrenhaus" (House of Lords), which cannot be dissolved, and consists of princes of the Royal house whom the King chooses to name, of members with hereditary rights, and of members chosen for their life. The members of the Second Chamber are 352 in number, and are elected for three years.

The Council of the State ("Staats Rath") consists, according to a decree of 1817, of royal princes who have attained the age of eighteen, of servants

of the State who are members of it by their office, and of such people as have by their merits deserved a seat and voice in it. Its importance ceased in 1848, and it was not re-assembled till 1854. It has now no functions, and has not been summoned for two years. From the Council of State there is formed a court for the decision of disputes between the courts of justice and the administrative officers, consisting of a president and nine members of the Council of State, whose names are submitted to the King by the president.

The ministry of the State is charged with all matters connected with the administration of the State, presided over by Prince Hohenzollern since 1858. In the absence of the president, the senior minister takes his place. On extraordinary occasions his Majesty presides. The Crown Prince usually attends the councils. The ministry consists of the president; of the minister, M. d'Anerswald, who has no portfolio; of the minister of trade and public works, Von der Heydt; of the minister of agricultural affairs, Count Pückler; of the minister of finance, M. de Patow; of the minister of spiritual education and medical affairs, Von Bethmann Hollweg; of the minister of the interior, Count Schwerin; of the minister of war and marine, General von Roon; of the minister of justice, Von Bernuth; of the minister for foreign affairs, Count Bernstorff. Every minister, besides being lodged, receives yearly 10,000 dollars. There are attached to the ministry two reporting counsellors. The ministry for trade, commerce, and public works is divided into seven departments:—1. General Post-office, which has a director, and is subdivided again into four divisions—(1) telegraphs, (2) post-office in Hamburg, (3) post-office in Berlin, including the expedition of newspapers and the three railroad post-offices, (4) the chief post-offices in the provinces. 2. Administration of affairs connected with railroads. 3. Administration of affairs connected with building on land, water, and roads. 4. For trade and commerce, which is subdivided again under the following eight heads:—(1) Technical committee for trade; (2) technical institution for trade; (3) school of design; (4) normal stamp committee; (5) manufacture of china, which produces a clear profit of 20,000 dollars yearly; (6) Manufacture of earthenware, which produces a clear profit of 9,600 dollars yearly; (7) schools of navigation; (8) the Benth-Schinkel Museum. 5. Administration of mines, foundries, and saline works. Ministry of finance—1. Department for the administration of taxes, which is subdivided into—(1) The chief stamp office; (2) the succession stamp office; (3) the chief office for duty on foreign goods; (4) chief office for duties on home goods; (5) chief office for direct taxes; (6) committee for the classified income-tax.

The Prussian Government has, moreover, agents who act as plenipotentiaries in the States forming the Zollverein; these are in Munich, Dresden, Hanover, Carlsruhe, Cassel, Wiesbaden, and Frankfort-on-the-Maine. There are, moreover, nine provincial tax directories. 2. For affairs connected with the receipt and payment of public money; subdivided into:—(1.) General lottery directory. (2.) The mint. The amount of money issued from the mint is, for 1861, the following:—(1.) Gold crowns, 100,000; in $\frac{1}{2}$ gold crowns, 9.00 (1,000,083 thalers 3 silbergroschen). (2.) In $\frac{1}{4}$ Vereins thalers, 100,000; (3.) In $\frac{1}{2}$ thalers, Vereins thalers, 2,450,000 thalers; Mansfelder thalers, 50,000 thalers. (4.) In $\frac{1}{4}$ thalers, 100,000 thalers. (5.) In $\frac{1}{2}$ thalers, 180,000. (6.) In silbergroschen, 70,000 thalers; in $\frac{1}{2}$ silbergroschen, 10,000 thalers. (7.) In

copper money of 4 pfennings, 4000; of 3 pfennings, 14,000; of 2 pfennings, 8,000; of 1 pfenning, 14,000 thalers. Total, 4,000,083 thalers 10 silvergroschen, equal to about 600,012*l*. (3) The general directory of the common widows' fund. (4) The privy ministerial archives. 3. Department for domains and forests. There is also, under the ministry of finance, the Maritime Commercial Company and the Royal Loan Office.

There is also under the direction of the minister of finance, although it has a certain degree of independence from him, the department called the chief administration of the State debts, which is composed of members chosen from members of both Chambers of the Diet.

The national or State debt of Prussia, at the end of 1859, was 271,194,875 thalers 7 sgr. In 1860 there was the remainder of the second loan of 1859, 6,400,000 thalers; so that at the end of 1860, the debt bearing interest was 265,195,229 thalers 11 silvergroschen 7 pfennings; the sum total of the national debt was 281,037,576 thalers 11 silvergroschen 7 pfennings.

The State treasury was formerly administered by the chancellor of the State, and latterly by a ministry formed for that purpose, which continued till 1848. From 1820 up to June 1840, there were paid into the State treasury 24,400,000 thalers, and on the accession of King Frederick William IV. there were in it 12,000,000 thalers. From June 1840 to the end of 1847 there were received into the treasury 9,860,000 thalers; at the end of 1848 it contained 6,500,000 thalers; at the end of 1849, 3,500,000; and at the end of 1853, 3,254,221 thalers. In May, 1848, it was decided the ministry for the treasury should cease to exist, and the management of it was handed over to the president of the ministry and the minister of finance; and by a resolution of the Second Chamber it was decided that the amount of the State treasury should cease to be made public, and that it would be sufficient if the committee for the budget received full information on the subject from the Government.

The ministry for agricultural affairs was first formed in 1848; first in connection with the ministry of commerce, and then independent.

The ministry of religion, education, and medical affairs is divided into four departments:—1. For matters relating to the Evangelical Church. 2. For matters relating to the Roman Catholic Church. 3. For matters relating to education. 4. For medical affairs. According to official reports of 1858, there were of Evangelical churches—mother churches, 5362 (“mutterkirchen”); filial churches, 2963 (“Tochterkirchen”); places of meeting for worship (not parishes), 982; and 1 chapel. The Roman Catholics had 4050 mother churches, 1267 filial churches, 2419 places of meeting for worship. The Greeks had 4 churches, the Mennonites 30, the Jews 985 temples, the Freethinkers 25 places of assembly.

The universities of Prussia are at—1. Greifswald, founded in 1456. 2. Halle, to which is added Wittenberg: the latter founded in 1502, the former in 1694; they were united in 1817. 3. Breslau, to which is added Frankfurt; the latter founded in 1506, the former in 1702; they were united in 1811. 4. Königsberg, founded in 1544. 5. Berlin, founded in 1810. 6. Bonn, founded in 1818. 7. Münster, newly organized in 1833. 8. Paderborn has also a philosophical and theological institution. Gymnasias and superior educational establishments.—Of these, the province of Prussia contains 21, the province of Brandenburg 39, the province of Silesia 21 (of which 5 are Roman Catholic), the province of Posen 10, the province

of Saxony 21, the province of Westphalia 20 (of which 12 are Roman Catholic), the Rhenish provinces 36 (of which 17 are Roman Catholic), Hohenzollern, (which is Roman Catholic).

The universities receive contributions from the State to the following amount:—Greifswald, 1200 dollars; Halle and Wittenberg, 61,465 dollars; Breslau, 85,803 dollars; Königsberg, 84,422 dollars; Berlin, 179,890 dollars; Bonn, 115,830 dollars; Münster, 2250 dollars; Paderborn, 2131 dollars.

Schools where languages, arts, and sciences are taught, are, of the first-class, at Königsberg (2), Tilsit, Thorn, Danzig (2), Elbing, Posen, Rawicz, Meseritz, Bromberg, Fraustadt, Breslau (2), Görlitz, Grünberg, Stettin, Berlin (5), Brandenburg, Potsdam, Prenzlau, Küstrin, Wittstock, Magdeburg, Erfurt, Münster, Minden, Lippstadt, Cologne, Düsseldorf, Elberfeld, Rheydt, Mülheim, and Treves. There are similar schools of the second class at Memel, Wehlau, Insterberg, Grandenz, Culm, Perleberg, Burg, Neisse, Landeshut, Greifswald, Stralsund, Berlin, Frankfort, Lübben, Aschersleben, Halberstadt, Nordhausen, Halle, Torgau, Hagen, Crefeld, Duisburg, Aix-la-Chapelle. The State makes a contribution to these schools of 233,689½ dollars. Seminaries with masters there are 48, to which the State contributes 147,871½ dollars. According to official reports made in 1858 (and there are none for a later date) there were:—1. Elementary schools, 24,923; with 28,369 fixed employes, 2637 helping teachers, and 2426 female teachers; there were educated 1,376,278 boys, 1,342,794 girls. 2. Middle schools for boys, 314; with 1016 masters, and 142 helping teachers; 46,282 pupils. 3. Schools for girls, 294; with 747 teachers, 438 helping teachers, 153 schoolmistresses, 107 helping mistresses, 49,197 female pupils. 4. Higher burgher schools, 101; with 671 teachers, 290 helping teachers, 22,040 pupils. 5. Progymnasia, 33; with 158 teachers, 67 helping teachers, 3346 pupils. 6. Gymnasia, 134; with 1408 teachers, 467 helping teachers, 38,700 pupils. 7. Seminaries, 55; with 3037 pupils. 8. Private elementary schools, 791; with 22,893 boys, and 23,336 girls. 9. Higher private schools for boys, 151; with 6255 pupils; for girls 282, with 19,469 pupils. 10. Provincial trade and art schools, 73. 11. Mechanics educational schools, 300. 12. Establishments for care of little children, 403. There were 25 establishments for the education of deaf and dumb, and 9 for the education of the blind.

The Ministry of the Interior has under its direction the Statistical Bureau and the Meteorological Institute; and the Police Presidency of Berlin, the establishments for the punishment of criminals, and the larger central prisons. At the end of December, 1859, the total amount of prisoners was 23,388, of whom 14,319 were Evangelicals, 8802 Roman Catholics, 264 Jews, 3 of other persuasions. The expenditure for establishments of punishment, correction, and imprisonment, was 2,100,468 thalers ordinary expenses; for extraordinary expenses, 30,000 thalers.

The Ministry of War.—On the accession of his Majesty King William I., in 1861, he changed the organization of the Prussian army. The army is now divided in the following manner:—1 corps of guards, and 8 corps d'armée; the former is in 3 divisions, the latter in 2 divisions; of these 19 divisions, 3 are divided again into 2 brigades, and 16 into 3 brigades. The general commanding a corps d'armée receives 4000 dollars pay, 5000 dollars additional for service, furnished lodgings, and firing; a commander of a division receives 4000 dollars pay, 1200 dollars additional for

service, furnished lodgings, and firing; the commander of a brigade receives 3000 dollars pay, and 300 dollars additional for service.

Fortresses of the first class:—Luxemburg, Mayence, Rastatt (the commandant is named by Prussia for five years, and by Austria for five years), Stettin, Cologne, Danzig, Königsberg, Magdeburg, Posen, Coblenz, and Ehrenbreitstein. The fortresses of the second class are—Thorn, Torgau, Minden, Colberg, Stralsund, Erfurt, Glogau, Glatz, Neisse, Wesel, and Saarlouis. The fortresses of the third class are—Wittenberg, Cosel, Küstrin, Grandenz, Pillau, Schweidnitz, Spandau, and Weichselmünde. Generals and lieutenant-generals receive 4000 dollars pay, and service-money in addition; major-generals, 3000 dollars pay, and service-money; commanders of regiments receive from 2500 to 2600 dollars; commanders of battalions from 1800 to 1900 dollars. Of infantry, the cost of the 1st Regiment of Guards is 167,362 thalers 27 silvergroshen; of 2nd Regiment of Guards, 142,694 thalers 15 silvergroshen; of Emperor Alexander, Emperor Franz, and Fusilier Guards regiment, each, 131,318 thalers 15 silvergroshen; of the 3rd and 4th Regiment of Guards, and of the 3rd and 4th Regiment of Grenadier Guards, each 94,444 thalers 6 silvergroshen; of battalion of Rifle Guards, 39,591 thalers 27 silvergroshen; of Rifle Guards, 37,041 thalers 27 silvergroshen; of 1st infantry regiment of the line, 105,582 thalers; of 31 regiments of the line, 3,273,042 thalers; of 1 Fusilier regiment, 105,582 thalers; of 7 Fusilier regiments, 739,094 thalers; of 1 infantry regiment of the line, 95,424 thalers 24 silvergroshen; of 31 regiments of infantry, 2,958,168 thalers 24 silvergroshen; 1st battalion of Chasseurs, 35,931 thalers 27 silvergroshen; of 9 other battalions of Chasseurs, 251,523 thalers 9 silvergroshen. Cavalry:—The cost of the regiment of Garde du Corps is 78,479 thalers 3 silvergroshen; of Cuirassiers of the Guard, 52,474 thalers 18 silvergroshen; of 1 regiment of Dragoon Guards, and regiment of Hussar Guards, each 52,204 thalers 12 silvergroshen; of 2 regiments of Dragoon Guards, 49,192 thalers 12 silvergroshen; of 1st, 2nd, and 3rd regiments of Lancer Guards, each 49,179 thalers 12 silvergroshen; of 8 Cuirassier regiments of the line, each 49,031 thalers 18 silvergroshen; of 4 Dragoon regiments of the line, each 48,774 thalers 12 silvergroshen; of 4 Dragoon regiments of the line of 5 squadrons, and of 4 Hussar regiments of the line of 5 squadrons, each 59,239 thalers 12 silvergroshen; of 12 regiments of Lancers, each 48,761 thalers 12 silvergroshen. Artillery:—The cost of a brigade of Artillery Guards is 188,711 thalers 13 silvergroshen; of the 2nd, 5th, and 6th brigades, each 187,957 thalers 30 silvergroshen; of the 1st, 4th, and 7th brigades, each 218,647 thalers 22 silvergroshen; of the 3rd brigade, 220,559 thalers 7 silvergroshen; of the 8th brigade, 220,204 thalers 22 silvergroshen; of the 9 pioneer battalions, each 24,612 thalers 15 silvergroshen. The pay of the troops for 1861 was 14,193,795 Prussian thalers.

Marine Ministry.—By a Cabinet order of 16th April, 1861, the Marine Ministry formed part of the Ministry of War. His Royal Highness Prince Adalbert of Prussia is at the head of the Marine department. He has the rank of a general of infantry, and receives 7,000 thalers pay. The budget for this department is 2,116,928 thalers.

Ministry of Justice.—To this Ministry belongs the highest court of law in the kingdom, the Upper Tribunal ("Ober Tribunal"), which consists of five civil senates and one senate for criminal affairs. There belongs also

to this Ministry the Committee for the Examination of Law Candidates ("Immediat Justiz-Examinations Commission"), which consists of eight members. It had the examination in 1859 of 441 candidates for the third juridical examination, of whom 203 did not pass.

The Prussian kingdom has 89 courts with juries: in the province of Brandenburg, 13; Pomerania, 9; Prussia, 19; Silesia, 14; Posen, 7; Saxony, 8; Westphalia, 10; Rhenish provinces, 9. In 1859 they tried 3853 causes. There were 5192 defendants: of whom 3083 were Evangelicals, 2024 Roman Catholics, 82 Jews, 3 Freethinkers: total, 4471 males, and 721 females.

Ministry for Foreign Affairs.—Chief, Count Bernstorff, who receives, besides his salary and free lodging, 6000 dollars representation money. The under-secretary receives 4500 dollars. There are 2 directors of departments, and 7 reporting counsellors, who receive in all 21,800 thalers. There are 29 posts of ministers and ministers resident, and 19 paid consulates.

Post.	Salary.	House-rent.	Post.	Salary.	House-Rent.
	Thalers.	Thalers.		Thalers.	Thalers.
Athens	7,000		Madrid	15,000	
Brussels	13,000		Mexico	11,400	
Carlsruhe	8,000		Munich	10,000	
Cassel Lippe, Detmold, and Waldeck	8,000		Naples (vacant)	10,000	
Constantinople	16,000	5600	Paris	25,000	Lodging free.
Copenhagen	10,000		St. Petersburg	25,000	8000
Darmstadt and Nassau	4,000		Rio de Janeiro (va- cant)	8,400	
Dresden	9,000		Rome	10,000	Lodging free.
Frankfort	18,000	3000	Switzerland	10,000	
The Hague	14,000		Stockholm	11,000	
Hamburgh and two Mecklenburgs	6,000		Stuttgart	8,000	
Hanover and various small States	10,000		Turin	10,000	1000
Lisbon	10,000		Washington	18,000	
London	25,000	8000	Weimar	4,000	
			Vienna	20,000	4000

RUSSIA.

Mr. Lumley, her Majesty's Secretary of Embassy, and Lord Napier, gave a report on "The trade of Russia with Central Asia."

Central Asia, likewise known under the denominations of Turkistan and Turan, extends from the frontier of Siberia to the Hindu-Kush, and from Sea of Aral to Chinese Turkistan. It comprises, besides several smaller States, the Khanats of Kokan, Bokhara, and Khiva. It is a country of considerable natural wealth; and, although its resources are far from being adequately developed, it offers a valuable market for hardware and cotton manufactures, which has hitherto been almost entirely monopolized by Russia. Before examining the state of the trade between Russia and the countries of Central Asia, it may not be out of place here to give some account of the three principal khanats engaged in that trade. The Khanat of Kokan, which, from its proximity to the Russian frontier, is perhaps the best known, consists of the eastern portion of Independent Turan or Turkistan. It is separated on the north from Siberia by a barren steppe; on the west it is bounded by Khiva and Bokhara; on the south, by Kara-teghin, Darras, and Kunduz; and, on the east, by Chinese Turkistan. Kokan, as the link connecting Russia with the Kaysak steppe, with Western

Mongolia, Chinese Turkistan, and Bokhara, would seem to have been destined by nature to play a far greater part in the commerce of the East than it actually does. The wretched manner in which the country is administered, the scanty wants of the inhabitants, and, above all, the bad roads, difficulty of transport, and high duties, are sufficient to account for the imperfect development of the natural resources of the country.

The celebrated Sir-Daryā (Jaxartes), which flows for nearly its whole course through the khanat, is said to be navigable from Kokan to the Sea of Aral, though, until of late years, the inhabitants scarcely ever made use of it, even to float timber. At present, there are a considerable number of boats on the Sir. These are generally flat-bottomed, pointed at each end, from 24 to 40 feet in length, with a depth of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet; they are built of pieces of willow or poplar, fastened together with iron, and will carry from six to twelve horses, or a weight of 40 cwt. to 80 cwt. The passage across the Sir at the ferry nearest the town of Kokan is thus described by a traveller, M. Wiljaminow-Sermow:—"A flat barge, which is used for the purpose, is towed up the river by three or six horses, which are then fastened by their manes to the barge, and driven into the river, across which they swim; and, being carried down by the stream, they generally manage to land on the other side of the river nearly opposite the place from whence they started." A great portion of the river is now in the possession of Russia, whose forts extend along it from the Sea of Aral to the longitude of Lake Tele-kul. Several Russian steamers and other vessels now navigate the Sir, since 1853, when Russia advanced her claim on that river to a point a little below Asret (Turkistan), the first town in Kokan territory on the road from Siberia. The banks of the Sir are sandy and barren; but its waters, being diverted by canals, serve to render Kokan a fertile country, in spite of the great and continuous drought throughout the summer. All the other rivers of Kokan, and some of them are of considerable size, are tributaries to the Sir: but several of them, wherever they flow through a flat and cultivated district, are so drained for the purposes of irrigation, that, during the summer, they cease to exist before they reach the Sir-Daryā.

The summer heat, which begins in May and lasts till October, is so excessive that, where nature is left to herself, not a vestige of vegetation remains, and nothing meets the eye but bare sand, and parched clay, burst into deep cracks by the heat, the soil being so hot that the inhabitants are obliged to wear a kind of golosh of thick leather over their boots. Rain is almost unknown during the summer months; and yet, notwithstanding these drawbacks, the inhabitants, by a rudely contrived but effectual system of irrigation, manage to raise from the unpromising soil every description of grain and fruit.

Perhaps, the only part of Europe that would enable us, by comparison, to form some idea of the condition of this khanat during the summer, is Spain. In the neighbourhood of Alicante, for instance, where rain is almost unknown, the water is either brackish or altogether wanting, and the country presents a similar barren and parched-up aspect; while at no great distance the country is converted into a garden by the judicious distribution of a mountain stream, or by smaller canals filled from a river which, by frequent "bleedings," is so exhausted that it either ceases to exist before reaching the sea, or does so in the form of an insignificant streamlet, barely sufficient for the wants of the washerwomen who ply their

trade in its dry bed. All the towns and villages of Kokan are surrounded by gardens; the country is full of orchards, chiefly of apricots, which, with almonds, pistachios, and other dried fruits, form a considerable item of trade with Russia; and in no part of the East are melons and water-melons to be found in such perfection as in Kokan. Grapes of the same description as those grown in Turkey are very plentiful, and the Jews of Kokan produce from them a wine of a strong aromatic flavour.

The silk-worm is cultivated to a great extent, and the produce is so large that, although great quantities of silk are exported to India, China, and Russia, a considerable amount remains every year in the hands of the merchants; it is, however, so carelessly prepared, that the silk of Bokhara and Persia is preferred to it.

The cotton grown in Kokan is the "*Gossypium herbaceum*;" its staple is strong and elastic, but it is uneven, coarse, and difficult to clean, often much stained by the oil from the seed left in it, and easily spoilt in the transport. The cotton of Kokan is not only inferior to that of Bokhara and Khiva, but even to that of Persia, which is considered the worst in all Asia; and yet so great is the demand in Russia for cotton that the amount exported even of this inferior quality increases with every year. Madder, which is produced in great quantities, is used in dyeing coarse cotton goods of the country, and the surplus is exported to Kashgar and India. Tobacco is grown throughout the Khanat: that raised at Namangan is considered the best; it is of a bright yellow colour, while that of Bokhara is almost white.

Throughout Turan, the two-humped camel is in general use, from its being better able to support the cold than the dromedary, which is used on the southern slopes of the Hindu-Kush. In Khiva, however, a large single-humped camel, called "*nar*," is in great request. Many of the Kokan merchants keep camels of their own, but others hire them from the Kirghiz, for the transport of their goods. The camels employed in the caravans that cross the steppe to Russia, carry loads varying from 640 to 720 lbs. Mules are also much used in the conveyance of merchandize; they carry heavier weights than the camel, and travel faster, performing, in thirteen, and even in twelve days, a distance which a camel only traverses in fifteen. The sheep of the Kokan Kirghiz are of a large description, with heavy tails, weighing from 20 to 40 lbs.; they require little or no tending, are satisfied with the scantiest food, support thirst for a long time, and follow, without fatigue, the tents of their wandering proprietors; their flesh is the favourite food of rich and poor; their milk and the cheese made from it, takes the place of bread with a large portion of the population, and their skins form the winter garments of the people. The Kirghiz of Kokan keep also large flocks of goats, which, in character, are not unlike those of Thibet, with reddish grey hair of great length, under which is a beautiful white hair of the finest description, from which the inhabitants of Urütüpa manufacture shawls and scarfs as fine and as highly prized as those of Cashmere.

The mineral wealth of Kokan is very great, though from the ignorance of its inhabitants little benefit is derived from it. At the source of the Sir-Darya, and in the small streams that flow into it, gold is found in grains of considerable size. The river Cherchik, which rises in the Kender-Tagh and falls into the Sir-Darya, near Tashkend, is particularly rich in gold, and the Governor of Tashkend, a portion of whose revenue is derived from this source, employs a very simple method for obtaining it. At certain

spots in the river favourable for the purpose, camels'-hair carpets are stretched and sunk across the the river, with the hairy side turned to the stream. The gold grains brought down by the current get entangled and hang in the hair of the carpets, which, after being kept for a certain time in the river, are taken out and dried, and when beaten produce a shower of gold.

In the Ala-Tagh, on the north of the Sir-Darya, two days' journey from Namangan, a very rich silver vein has been discovered. At a distance of four days' journey from the same place is a mine of lead containing a large proportion of silver. Copper and iron are also found in Kokan, the latter in the mountains of Khojend and in the neighbourhood of Tashkend. Very fine turquoises are procured near Isfara, and in the neighbouring mountains inhabited by the Black Kirghiz. Emeralds, rubies, and topazes, as well as lapis lazuli, are found in various parts of the Khanat. The cornelian of Kokan is also much valued throughout Central Asia.

The population of Kokan consists of various Turkish tribes. The Uzbeks extend from the Sir-Darya to the Hindu-Kush; the felt tents of the Kara-Kalpaks are scattered along both banks of the Sir; the Kaysak-Kirghiz are found in considerable numbers in Tashkend, and further north as far as the river Tchui; the Burnt or true Kirghiz inhabit the mountain chain Ala-Tagh, and extend southwards to the Billur; a spur of the Hindu-Kush; the Tajiks, a Persian tribe, the aborigines of the country, are a stationary and industrious, but dishonest race, speaking a peculiar and ancient dialect of the Persian language; they once held possession of the whole country from the Chinese frontier to the Caspian Sea and Persian Gulf, but were gradually driven by more warlike tribes to take shelter in the Billur-Tagh. Besides these races a small number of Jews are found in the towns and villages, while in the larger towns Hindoos, Afghans, and other Asiatic traders are also met with. It is impossible to give anything like a correct statement of the amount of the population of Kokan, as no census has ever been taken in the Khanat, the taxes being levied on produce, and not with reference to the population; but it is supposed to be, inclusive of the tax-paying Kirghiz, between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000. The population is most dense in the valley of Fergana, in Kuram, Kokan, Tashkend, and Namangan, and in the neighbourhood of Khojend and Urütüpa.

Exclusive of its commercial relations with Russia, Kokan trades with Western Mongolia, Chinese Turkistan, Karateghin, Bokhara, and Khiva.

1. To Western Mongolia caravans start from Tashkend to Kulja laden with gold, opium, and Russian manufactures, and they return with green and brick tea, common porcelain, and silks. Of late years a direct trade has been established between Russia and Kulja.

2. The trade with Chinese Mongolia is exclusively carried on between Kokan and Kashgar; horses are used for this purpose, on account of the exceedingly mountainous character of the country. They are hardy and strong; and although the weight they carry generally is only 360 lbs., they are hired at the same rate as camels, for they indemnify the loss in weight by gain in time, travelling twice, and even three times, as fast as the camel. The price charged per horse from Kokan to Kashgar is from 2 to 4 tilla (24s. to 48s.), according to circumstances. The journey is performed in from fourteen to twenty days, according to the season and the state of the roads. The exports from Kokan to Kashgar consist of Russian rod and bar iron, red leather, a cloth made from nettles, silk goods, opium, gold in specie and ingots, cotton, and madder. The yearly imports from Kashgar

to Kokan consist of 30,000 horse-loads of tea, green, brick tea, and tea of an inferior kind, called "aknirik;" 200 horses laden with white felt cloth, 200 with alum, 50 with porcelain, and 50 with hardware.

3. The trade of Kokan with Karateghin is chiefly confined to the purchase of gold found in the sources of the Amu-Darya (Oxus). The gold washing is carried on in June and July, after the melting of the snows; in favourable spots a workman can wash out from 3 to 4 zolotniks ($7\frac{1}{2}$ to $9\frac{1}{2}$ drachms), and in the worst localities about $\frac{1}{8}$ th zolotnik (1 scruple) per day. The gold is chiefly purchased by Indians and traders from Cabul, who dispose of it at Bokhara and Kokan, to which places it is generally sent in the autumn. At that time of the year the price of a zolotnik of gold at Kokan is $16\frac{1}{2}$ tenga (tamgha), or about 10s., when pure, and 8s. for gold dust. At other times the zolotnik is sold at 12s. for the first quality, and 10s. for gold dust.

The trade with Bokhara is carried on much more through Tashkend than through Kokan. The articles brought to the markets of Bokhara are Russian cast-iron, rice, tobacco, and silks, some of Chinese manufacture, and others the produce of Kokan. Large flocks of sheep are also driven to Bokhara from Tashkend. In return, Bokhara supplies Kokan with dyes, drugs, and cotton and English cloths, which come through Herat. These, which are of the very worst quality, but quite in accordance with the Asiatic taste as regards colours and patterns, are imported on commission at from twelve to eighteen months. Besides these goods Kokan receives from Bokhara India hardware, and scarfs and turbans from Cabul. From Tashkend caravans reach Bokhara in thirteen to fifteen days, the cost being 24s., 30s., to 33s. per camel. Goods from Tashkend to Kokan are transported on camels and horses, the rates being 7s. 2d. to 9s. per camel, and 6s. to 7s. 2d. per horse. The distance is performed in five, six, to seven days. The cost of carriage from Kokan to Bokhara is the same as that from Tashkend, viz., 30s. to 36s. per camel, and the journey is performed in twenty to twenty-two days.

Khiva supplies Bokhara with Russian hardware, cast-iron pots, and leather; also with raw silk and sesamum oil and seeds. In return, Bokhara sends tobacco (to a very great extent), native cottons, dressed lamb-skins, furs, indigo, and green tea received from Kashgar. Bokhara is also the centre of a great trade in sheep, which are brought there by the Kirghiz in the middle of July; the traders from Shehr-i-sebz, Hissar, and other places, resort to Bokhara when the sheep sales take place. Goods are transported between Khiva and Bokhara at 12s. to 18s. per camel.

The Bokharian and Khivan camels travel the distance in ten or eleven days, but those of the Kirghiz employ fifteen days and more. On horseback, Bokhara may be reached from Khiva in four or five days; the Argamak horse will do it in three days. Merchandise from Khiva to Bokhara is generally shipped at Urghianch (Urghenj) in boats, which ascend the Amu-Darya (Oxus) as far as the neighbourhood of Charjuy, one day's journey from the Bokharian village of Kara-kul. The freight in such cases is 2s. 4d. per cwt. The overland carriage from Khiva to Urghianch is effected at 7d. per camel. The rate from Tashans to Khiva is 4s. 2d. per camel.

Vessels available for the transport of goods, as above referred to, are found on the Amu-Darya (Oxus) from Kungrad as far as the small town of Char-juy, and, according to others, as far as the town of Tirmez (which

is within a day's journey of Balkh). These boats carry about 80½ cwt., or two camels, about fifteen passengers, and the burthens of ten camels. It is said the Khivans have some boats which will carry 160 cwt. They are always towed up by line.

There are seven places convenient for landing on the Amu-Darya:—1. Urghianch, a landing-place and station for all boats proceeding to Khiva from Kungrad, on the banks of the Amu, at one day's voyage from Khiva, and two days' from the Sea of Aral; 2. Uchuchak, a locality so called; 3. Kukertli passage; 4. Centre of distance between Kukertli and Charjuy; 5. Karki village; 6. Kilif passage; and, 7. Tirmez. On the whole of this extent the Amu is clear of rapids, and runs almost in a straight line between high banks.

CHINA.

Lieutenant-Colonel Neale, her Majesty's Secretary of Legation, gave all the information which it was possible to attain from reliable sources respecting the British trade which has actually arisen at the nine new ports recently opened to British commercial enterprise by the Treaty of Tien-tsin of 1858, and subsequent Convention of Peking of October 24, 1860. They are designated as follows:—1. Chin-kiang. 2. Kiu-kiang. 3. Hankow. 4. New-chwang. 5. Tang-chow. 6. Tien-tsin. 7. Taiwan (Formosa). 8. Chow-chow (Swatow). 9. Kiung-chow (Hainan). Taking these in the order in which they are written, the first three, namely, Chin-kiang, Kiu-kiang, and Hankow, are situated on the Yang-tze-kiang, or Great River, which traverses China from east to west, and that they are now referred to in commerce as the Yang-tze ports. The rest are on the sea-board, or closely adjoining it. The ports on the Yang-tze were opened to trade at the beginning of the present year (1861), in anticipation of the treaty-rights which accorded access to this river, but only when the rebellion, still raging on its shores, had been quelled by the Imperial troops and order restored; but as far as Chin-kiang, foreign trade did not fall under this restriction. Her Majesty's Minister in China, however, in communication with the Prince of Kung, obtained the consent of the Chinese Government to the immediate opening of all three ports, as before stated.

The river Yang-tze had long been looked upon by the British mercantile community as the main artery of trade in China, and its free navigation an object greatly to be desired, as without such it was deemed impossible to attain a thorough development of mercantile enterprise in our relations with this empire. This desirable object was at length achieved, together with other no less important concessions, by the Treaty of Tien-tsin of 1858. But notwithstanding the evident commercial advantages which were apparent by the liberty of access on the part of British merchants and ships into the heart of China by the channel of this noble river, very little information existed as to the relative trading advantages of the numerous cities and towns upon its shores. Some of these, especially on the southern or left bank, including Nanking, the capital of the province of Kiang-su, had been for a considerable period in the hands of the insurgents; and a flourishing city to-day in occupation of the Imperialists was to-morrow taken by the rebels, who left no vestige perceptible of its recent wealth and activity, and spared but few even of its inhabitants. In the interval, therefore, between the signing of the Treaty of Tien-tsin in 1858, and the period assigned for its ratification, the Earl of Elgin determined upon ascending this river for

the purpose of assuring himself, by personal observation and inquiry, respecting the actual condition and resources of the cities and towns along its source as far as Hankow, the limit assigned. His Lordship, in Her Majesty's ship *Furious*, was accompanied by a flotilla of gun-boats, and the expedition having reached Hankow, a distance of 677 statute miles from Shanghai, and having visited the principal towns on both banks of the river, returned to Shanghai on the 1st of January of this year (1861), after an absence of eight weeks.

The renewal of hostilities which now intervened having terminated with the ratifications of the Treaty of Tien-tsin and the Convention of Peking of the 20th of October, 1860, by which additional commercial advantages were conceded to Great Britain, a second expedition up the Yang-tze-kiang was deemed to be most essential and expedient; and Vice-Admiral Sir James Hope, in communication with Her Majesty's Minister, having undertaken its conduct and direction in person, the expedition ascended the river as far as Yoh-chow, 157 miles higher up the river than Hankow, the latter having been the highest point previously explored.

The ports of Kiu-kiang and Hankow were considered, subject to further investigation, to be by far the best situated for the establishment of the Consular authorities and the opening of trade. The expedition was accompanied by Mr. H. S. Parkes, by the Consular officers appointed by Her Majesty's Minister to reside at the several ports selected, as well as by three British merchants deputed by the Chamber of Commerce of Shanghai to report on the commercial capabilities of the several places visited by the expedition. The distances of the principal cities and towns from Shanghai by the river were as follows:—To Chin-kiang, 138 nautical miles; to Nanking, 182 nautical miles; to Kiu-kiang, 433 nautical miles; to Hankow, 570 nautical miles; to Yoh-chow, 727 nautical miles. The result of this expedition was the final selection of the ports of Chin-kiang, Kiu-kiang, and Hankow, as best suited for the purpose already referred to. The Consular officers were duly installed, the British flag hoisted at their residences, and these ports were officially announced as open to trade under specific regulations approved by Her Majesty's Minister in communication with the Imperial Government.

Chin-kiang.—This town is in the province of Kiang-su, situated on the right bank (southern shore) of the Yang-tze river, near one of the chief entrances to the Grand Canal, and is 138½ nautical miles from Shanghai. Chin-kiang has been re-occupied by the Imperialists since the close of the year 1857; but, during its five years' occupation by the rebels, it is reported to have been reduced to a miserable condition. Trade has been necessarily in abeyance for a considerable period, owing to the near vicinity of the rebel head-quarters at Nanking, distant only about forty-five miles lower down the river; but its position, with water-communication east and west on the Great River, and north and south by the Grand Canal, points it out to have been admirably adapted as a great entrepôt of trade, paralyzed at present, indeed, by the rebels who swarm in this district, but which it would again become, were confidence restored to the native merchants by the extirpation of these lawless marauders, who scourge and lay waste this once flourishing region. The presence of foreigners, however, on these comparatively abandoned scenes of former activity, extending around them fresh rays of commercial enterprise, and to some extent a moral, if not physical, protection to the native traders, will, it is hoped and expected, again set in motion

the stream of trade along the shores of this noble river. The Taoutae, or local governor of Chin-kiang, upon the arrival of the British Consul, showed every disposition to do his utmost to welcome the coming foreign settlement, and to encourage the native merchants who had sought refuge in the neighbouring large cities to return to Chin-kiang and trade freely with foreigners, as earnestly set forth in his proclamation here annexed.

The island is reported to be three miles in circumference, and as containing sufficient house accommodation for a small foreign mercantile community, with ample store-rooms to meet the present exigencies of the port. But exclusively of this arrangement a sufficient extent of building-ground was secured upon lease in the name of Her Majesty's Government at Chin-kiang itself, for the future use of Her Majesty's Consul and of British subjects, comprising an area of forty-four acres, within which is a hill six acres in extent. The population of Chin-kiang, once reckoned at nearly 1,000,000, is now stated to be about 40,000. The river frontage is 1,400 feet.

Kiu-kiang.—This town is situated on the right bank of the river, 295 miles higher up than Chin-kiang. It is the first town reached showing symptoms of some prosperity. The inhabitants are well-dressed, and trade reported to be reviving. The commercial advantages of this town are to be found in the following circumstances:—It commands practically the navigation of the Poyang Lake, and has water-communication by creeks the whole way to Shanghai, although the presence of the rebels at Nanking, whose offshoots devastate the western banks of the Great Canal between Chin-kiang and Suchow, into which these creeks lead, paralyses for the present the trade by those channels. British-manufactured cotton goods, hitherto imported from Canton by the Meiling Pass, were found to be selling in the town, and hemp, tea, and other commodities available for exportation. The river at Kiu-kiang affords good anchorage, and no bottom was found at 9 fathoms. The climate is healthy, and its situation picturesque, surrounded as it is by limestone hills and a well-cultivated country. Game is said to be found in abundance in the neighbourhood, including wild boar and deer.

But to revert to the Poyang Lake; the chief importance of this town and port, in a commercial point of view, is derived from its situation at the entrance to this rich central reservoir. The rivers and creeks pour into it from the black and green tea districts, and from the regions of mineral and other products to the south-east, south, and west, embracing in their course the richest and most productive districts of the empire. This lake, which never before had been visited by a foreign vessel, was partially explored by Her Majesty's gun-boat *Havoc* in the month of March of this year (1861), having on board Mr. Hughes, the Acting British Consul at Kiu-kiang. A pilot was taken in at Hookow, opposite Kiu-kiang, and the *Havoc* proceeded up the channel, about a mile in breadth, which leads to the lake. After passing the town of Nankang-foo, the important city of Woo-chung was reached, distant from the entrance of the channel about forty miles. Woo-chung is situated on an island in the delta of one of the rivers which fall into the lake, and is approached by a channel 500 yards in width and 8 miles in length. This channel is navigable with caution up to the town for vessels not drawing more than 12 feet of water; along the creek, junks were crowded on both sides, and more activity appeared to prevail than even at most of the large cities on the Yang-tze-kiang. Woo-chung is an

unwalled town, and not very populous; but the inhabitants were almost entirely composed of traders, to the exclusion of the literary classes. The town had suffered much by the rebels between 1853 and 1856, but their return did not appear to be at present anticipated. Three or four very busy streets were full of shops and warehouses. Nearly all the public buildings had been destroyed by the rebels, but some are in course of reconstruction on a costly scale, especially the Provincial Assembly Hall of the merchants of Hoonan and Hoopeh. The Ninchow tea-junks pass by Woo-chung on their way to Hankow, and boats from Kwang-sin, the district in which the great tea-mart (Hookow) is situated, arrive here with cargoes of tea, joss-paper, &c., carrying back cargoes of tobacco-leaf and other articles. The Hookow teas intended for the Hankow market are here transhipped into junks of larger size more fitted for the rougher navigation of the Poyang Lake and of the Great River.

The famous Imperial porcelain manufactories of Kingte-chen in Tan-chow-foo, to the south-east of the Poyang Lake, established 800 years ago, and which, in the time of the Jesuit Père d'Entrecolles (about 150 years ago), contained 3000 furnaces, affording employment to 1,000,000 of inhabitants, and which still exists, though on a very much reduced scale, furnishes its quota of trade in the commoner descriptions of china ware through Woo-chung to the surrounding districts, to Canton, and from thence to India and the Indian Archipelago. Between this town and Nan-chang-foo, distant about fifty miles, a considerable trade is kept up in Manchester goods, and products of Canton were brought to Woo-chung across the Meiling Pass; they are put on board boats at Nangan-foo, in the south of Kiang-se, from whence there is direct water communication to Nan-chang-foo and Woo-chung. It is stated also, that in former years, immediately previous to the Taeping rebellion, a brisk trade was kept up between the latter place and Nanking on the Yang-tze.

The *Havoc* was prevented by the shallowness of the channel, which was only seven feet deep, from reaching Nan-chang-foo, the provincial capital; she therefore returned to Woo-chung, and proceeded to the exploration of the lake, which, properly so called, only opens to view on passing the town of Too-chung. The lake now stretches away to the south and south-east; it was found to be generally shallow, but a deep channel runs in the direction of Tan-chow-foo to the south-west. Owing, however, to the brief period of time allotted to the expedition, and impossibility of obtaining good pilots, the *Havoc* was unable to visit the numerous towns on the shores of the lake, and returned to its station at Kiu-kiang.

Enough has been seen, however, of this fine inland sea, which is variously stated to be from seventy to ninety miles in length, and twenty miles in breadth, to justify the statement that, as a reservoir of trade, it teems with natural and acquired advantages rarely met with; surrounded with towns upon its banks where native merchants from the interior districts have long been in the habit of resorting, and where they collect and deposit the produce of the surrounding districts. The foreign traders will here find a wide field for barter, hitherto restricted to, and monopolized by, the habitual native dealers at the sea-board ports. And to render these advantages complete, coal is brought by water-carriage to the very borders of the lake from the mines in the neighbourhood, well adapted for steamers, and not exceeding in cost six dollars per ton. There does not appear, therefore, any good reason to doubt that this fertile and productive region, hitherto for-

bidden ground for foreign agents or foreign shipping, will shortly become a new and profitable mart for barter, at least in all the staple articles of China trade.

The British concession-ground at Kiu-kiang, duly secured upon the usual favourable terms under lease in perpetuity, was selected owing to the height of the ground, and from its position at the angle formed by the junction of the Lungkai Creek with the main river, thus giving a water-frontage on two sides. It formed a portion of a ruined suburb. Its dimensions are 1650 feet along the river, by a depth of 660 feet, the area being twenty-five acres. The ground has been divided into thirty lots, for which there were at once as many applicants.

Hankow.—This town, situated in an alluvial plain on the north or left bank of the Yang-tze, 137 miles further up than Kiu-kiang, and 677 miles from Shanghai, is the most considerable and important of the three consular stations which have been opened to trade on that river. Hankow is universally looked upon as the great central emporium of trade of the empire; its water-communication extends up and down the Yang-tze, and through its tributaries, some of which lead into the Tung-ting Lake. The river Han, coming from the north-west, here also forms its junction with the Yang-tze, and is navigable up to the city of the same name, situated 250 miles up its course, and the point of transhipment for merchandize conveyed to and from Peking and Tien-tsin. Opposite, on the south or right bank, is the very considerable city of Woo-chung, the residence of the Viceroy, some description of which is hereafter given, and the small town of Hangyang, adjoining Hankow, the whole forming a cluster of cities which would form but one gigantic area of human habitations if unintersected by the Great River, and its tributary, the Han.

Hankow, which is situated at the junction of the Han and Yang-tze, extends for a mile down the left bank of the Yang-tze, and is continued up the left bank of the Han, at which latter part of the town is the safest anchorage, usually crowded with vessels of all kinds. The banks of the rivers are raised above the country at the back, and from July to October the whole neighbourhood is flooded to within a mile of the town; the soil is, therefore, not under regular cultivation, and about once in every four years great inundations occur, which drive the inhabitants to the hills. The climate is, nevertheless, stated to be healthy. Hankow is not a walled town, but there is a small fort and ditch at the eastern extremity. The streets are numerous, and in the best Chinese style. The town has the appearance of a great emporium of trade. British cotton manufactures have been long known here, having been imported hitherto from Canton. The mineral products of Sze-chuen here find a mart, and native opium grown in West Sze-chuen and in the province of Hoopoh is sold in considerable quantities, and at a far cheaper rate than Indian (Malwa) opium, which, however, was in the market.

The native trade is represented as enormous, with districts in the west of Hoopoh and Sze-chuen. The prices at which British cotton goods are offered for sale in the shops at Hankow would tend to disprove the general belief that inland duties *in transitu* from Canton were inordinately onerous. On comparing, also, the prices of the native grey cotton cloths with British cotton manufactures, it is reported by the intelligent British merchants who accompanied the expedition, that the prices of the former cannot be considered low. It was fully expected that the whole of the Hoopoh teas will

be brought next year to Hankow for shipment, if the immediate vicinity of this district is undisturbed by the insurgents, the passage down the Great River being not only far more expeditious, but making in the cost of transport of tea, as far as Shanghai, the considerable difference of eight taels per picul less than by native boats through the inland creeks. It is not alone, however, from the Hoopoh districts that it is anticipated the tea merchants will find their way to Hankow, but also through the Tung-ting Lake. This lake, said to be 220 miles in circumference, receives the waters of several southern rivers, which find their way through it into the Yang-tze, and serves as the great reservoir for the numerous tea cargoes and other products brought into it by the native junks navigating the rivers and creeks of that rich and extensive district of Central China. To the south of the lake are some hills, on which are grown tea of an incomparable quality, for the especial use of the Emperor, said to be worth a guinea per lb., but which cannot be bought for money. To the westward are large forests, and to the south extensive black tea districts. This, indeed, is the region of lakes; for, from the east of Tung-ting Lake, over an area of 158 miles east and west, and 80 miles north and south, the course of the Yang-tze lies between a series of lakes almost touching one another, which circumstance gives to the provinces of Hoopoh and Hoonan their names, these words meaning north and south of the lakes.

If, then, the tea and other products of these vast regions are directed to Hankow as the most convenient depôt for barter and shipment both by foreign merchants and native dealers, this, it may be presumed, will tend, in due time, to diminish the prices of tea when it reaches the hands of the consumer in Great Britain. Yow-chow, at the entrance of the lake, and 157 miles up the river from Hankow, is surrounded by tea-growing districts. It was taken by the rebels in 1853, 1855, and again in 1857, and has now sunk into decadence, but its position would ensure a revival of its former prosperity under more favourable circumstances. This town was the extreme limit of the expedition up the Yang-tze, under Sir James Hope, in the spring of this year, but the Taeping rebellion, necessarily so frequently referred to in this report, unfortunately renders the full development of all reasonable expectations of extended traffic, both import and export, in the ports opened to foreign trade on the Yang-tze-kiang contingent upon the power of the Imperial Government, by a judicious organization and distribution of its military forces, to ensure protection and confidence to the native merchants of at least the larger commercial cities.

The city of Woo-chung-foo, opposite Hankow, is the provincial city of the province of Hoopoh, and the residence of the viceroy of that province, as well as of Hoonan. It is a walled city, and within the walls is the ridge of a hill overlooking the surrounding country. Through a gap in this hill one of the principal streets runs under a belfry tower. The city covers an area of fourteen square miles. The shops in the principal streets are well furnished, and, besides the yamuns or public offices, there is a Confucian temple and an examination-hall, with cells four feet square, for 8,000 candidates. Hanyang, on the same side of the Yang-tze as Hankow, but separated from it by the river Han, is a small city affording no particular advantages in a military or commercial point of view; a hill which runs through it, serves as a refuge for the inhabitants during the period of high floods. The population of these three cities, clustered together in the heart of China at a confluence of water-communication leading to all parts of the

empire, is no doubt most dense and teeming with life; but it is difficult to adopt specific statements in respect to the population of cities in China, which ebb and flow with the approach or withdrawal of exterminating rebel bands. In 1851 the Abbé Huc estimated the united population of Woo-chung-foo, Hankow, and Hanyang, at 8,000,000 souls, and in 1861, the expeditions which ascended the Yang tze, speak of them as probably containing 3,000,000, exclusive of the multitudes in boats.

It remains only to state that the concession-ground on which the residences of the British community at Hankow will ere long be constructed, is situated at the eastern end of the city, with a fair water-frontage, and vessels of large draft can lay alongside the bank with eight fathoms close at hand. Hankow Reach extends for six miles, with from one mile to three-quarters of a mile across, affording ample room for turning. The site was chosen as near the centre of the city as circumstances would permit. As the whole country around is subject to floods, the object was to secure as high ground as possible: a great portion of the settlement will not require to be raised. Its dimensions are 2,750 English feet in length, all water-frontage, by 1,210 feet in depth; the area being about $76\frac{1}{2}$ acres.

New-chwang.—This town is situated in Shun-king, the only one of the three provinces of Manchuria remaining intact and unabsorbed by Russia in that quarter, in latitude $41^{\circ} 20' 25''$ north, and longitude $122^{\circ} 41' 50''$ east. It is reached up the River Lian (which empties itself into the Gulf of Lian-tung), at a point 80 miles up the river, not on its shore, however, but 8 miles up a small affluent. The distance by land to New-chwang from the coast does not exceed 35 miles. The bar at the entrance of the Lian presents some difficulties, but being passed through the right channel, which has 20 feet of water, the river is found to have from 4 to 7 fathoms for 10 miles up, where the town of Ying-tze, in the district of New-chwang, is reached. Here her Majesty's consulate is established in preference to New-chwang itself, for reasons to which I shall presently advert. Passing Ying-tze, and 70 miles further up the river, a small affluent runs inland, 8 miles up which New-chwang is built; but foreign merchant-vessels of moderate draught could not navigate the river higher up than Tai-tze, 15 miles short of where the New-chwang armlet is reached, and even native row-boats do not find sufficient water at a point two or three miles short of the town. New-chwang was visited by her Majesty's consul upon his arrival to occupy his post in the month of June of this year (1861), and was found to present no signs of commercial activity, but, on the contrary, was falling into decay, although in the early period of the present dynasty it had been a place of considerable trade. Its present local importance is derived from its being one of the garrison towns of the province. Taking into account, therefore, the disadvantageous condition of New-chwang as a mart of trade, and seeing also the impossibility of shipping reaching this town, owing to the shallowness of the river, her Majesty's consul deemed it very desirable to establish the consulate and British settlement at Ying-tze before referred to, and with the sanction of her Majesty's minister, and full concurrence, and even wishes, of the Chinese authority, the consulate was there in due form established.

Ying-tze (variously called Yint-tze, Muhkowing, Yinkow, and Newkow), is situated, as before mentioned, ten miles up the river, on its left bank. The reach along which the town lies, varies in depth of water to from four to seven fathoms; and the anchorage-ground is commodious and safe.

The town is estimated to contain about 50,000 inhabitants, and, although surrounded with mud-flats at low tide and marshes, the climate is represented as not unhealthy. The navigation is stopped for four months in the year, i. e., from about the 15th November to the 15th March; but agricultural operations being then arrested, and no other employment found for the cattle, it is during that period that the produce of the surrounding country is brought in carts to Ying-tze, especially from the northern and eastern parts of the province, and from Eastern Mongolia, comprising distances not attained by the river navigation in summer. A large trade is carried on up the river Lian by Shanghai and Ningpo junks as far as Ying-tze, and by Shantung and Tien-tsin junks with Tai-tze, fourteen miles higher up. The merchandise imported by them are coarse domestics of British manufacture, and other staples usually imported into the other ports of China. But with the exception of raw cotton to a very limited extent, these cargoes are re-exportations, partly from Shanghai and partly from Tien-tsin. The importation into Manchuria, through Ying-tze, of native-grown raw cotton from Shanghai is more considerable, the quantity of cleaned cotton so imported being estimated at 76,000 bales of 83 catties each. The products exported consist in wheat, barley, millet, peas, beans, tobacco, oil, and drugs. Some expectations are also formed that sheep's wool and tallow may eventually be brought down in sufficient quantities for exportation, to which may be added coal, which is procurable in abundance, and timber, with which nearly all Manchuria is covered. On the whole, I am informed that the mercantile community is inclined to the belief that a direct trade between Great Britain and New-chwang is more likely, in course of time, to spring up to a moderate extent, than from Tien-tsin or Tang-chow.

A considerable drawback to the immediate development of the foreign trade at this port exists, however, in the prohibition to export pulse and bean-cake, staple products throughout this region, but the free exportation of which the Chinese Government was loth to admit during the discussions which took place respecting the rules attached to the Treaty of 1858. All nations unversed in the true principles of political economy, are averse to the exportation of products which serve as the chief food of the inhabitants, and unaware to what extent, if a door were opened to exportation, even under restrictions, a province or district might be drained of its chief aliments, and the people thus become driven to disaffection and revolt. The Government of China appears to have adopted the rude expedient of prohibiting the export, in this instance, of the two principal products of agricultural industry in this province, irrespective of the abundance or scarcity of the harvests, even from one port on the seaboard of China to another. Notwithstanding this prohibition, however, a brisk, though unrecognized, trade is carried on in these prohibited articles of export, for foreign vessels in the offing receive their cargoes from Chinese boats, and so depart, taking their chance of landing them at some other port in China where the custom-house officers may or may not prove as indulgent as at the port of lading. The right of exporting pulse and bean cake, the staple products of the two northern ports of Ying-tze (New-chwang), and Tang-chau in Shan-tung, excepting in seasons of dearth, is a privilege which it is to be hoped, in the course of our amicable relations with China, may be conceded to the foreign merchant.

From New-chwang to Moukden, the capital of Manchuria, the distance

is 90 miles. The country between these two places is flat, but richly cultivated. The population is considerable, and the villages well built. The country is well supplied with mules and horses of a superior breed to those found in other parts of the Chinese Empire. Inns are found at intervals of every mile and a half. The traffic in summer is carried on by the rivers, and in the winter by the roads, which are frozen in some places to the depth of from 3 to 7 feet. The great trading city of Laon-kiang, latitude $41^{\circ} 10'$ north, longitude $123^{\circ} 27'$ east, lies in the road between New-chwang and Moukden, at a distance of 45 miles from the latter, and is described as a walled city, the streets wide, and the shops richly furnished. Moukden is laid out precisely on the same plan as Peking, although only half the size; but the streets are even broader than those of Peking, and cleaner. The inhabitants throughout these districts of Manchuria are a bold and athletic race; all are armed as a protection against banditti who infest the country, especially in the winter months, and who are said to be chiefly Mahomedans.

Upon the first arrival of her Majesty's consul and other Europeans, the inhabitants of Ying-tze exhibited a hostile and menacing disposition, but they are now reported to have become civil and respectful; so much so that her Majesty's consul did not consider it necessary that a British vessel of war should continue to be stationed there. From New-chwang by Moukden to Peking the distance is about 580 miles, and practicable by couriers in five days. The Korean envoys bringing tribute arrive annually in Peking by this route. From Tien-tsin to Ying-tze the distance is 420 statute miles, and the road can be traversed by carts the whole way, excepting during the rainy season. In respect to climate, Ying-tze and the district of New-chwang generally is subjected to less heat during summer than either Peking or Tien-tsin; the winters are, however, very severe, but the houses are built to resist the cold, and fuel is abundant. At Ying-tze her Majesty's consul has secured, on the usual favourable lease, a concession of ground in the most eligible locality, as the place of settlement of the future British community, and the agents of some commercial houses had already arrived.

Tien-tsin.—This city and port in the province of Chi-li is situated 68 miles up the river Peiho by its tortuous windings, although not more than half that distance in a straight line by land; the precise position of Tien-tsin is in latitude $39^{\circ} 10'$ north, longitude $46^{\circ} 32'$ east from Peking. From Tien-tsin by land to Peking the distance is 80 miles; by water the journey as far as Tung-chow is usually accomplished in from four to five days, and from Tung-chow Peking is reached on horseback in two hours, and by carts in six hours. The river is usually frozen over from about the 15th of December to the 15th of March, and the local movement of boats and junks is then taken up by sledges, which swarm on the river.

Tien-tsin is a very considerable walled city, and its population cannot fall short of 1,000,000. The markets are abundantly supplied with fish, butcher's meat, vegetables, poultry, and all sorts of game. The utmost activity prevails in the streets, and the shops are well stocked with merchandize suited to Chinese requirements. The maximum of heat in the the summer is 106° , the maximum of cold 6° below zero; but the houses, surrounded as they are, wall within wall, are tolerably protected against the cold.

Tang-chow.—Tang-chow-foo, in the province of Shan-tung, department

of Tang-chow-foo, is one of the largest sea-port towns along the whole of that province. It lies on the north-western shores of the promontory of Shan-tung in latitude $37^{\circ} 47'$ north, and 170 miles from the mouth of the River Peiho. It is the seat of residence of the chief local authorities of that department. The harbour is exposed to the eastward and westward, and only partially defended to the north by the Miatau Islands. The bottom is rocky. This harbour cannot, in consequence, be frequented by vessels of heavy draught, and even communication with the shore in boats is frequently difficult and precarious in rough weather. The establishment of her Majesty's consulate at this port, therefore, so ill-suited for shipping, was evidently inexpedient, and the small town of Yentai, at the bottom of the harbour of Che-foo, was selected as in every respect the best situated for trade on this part of the coast of China. At a distance of about thirty miles to the eastward of Tang-chow-foo, upon the same northern shore of the promontory, is the harbour of Che-foo, sheltered from the east by an island at its entry, and affording excellent anchorage-ground, much resorted to by native vessels. Here, also, the French squadron found a secure anchorage during the last winter (1860-61). In the north-western corner of the harbour is the large open town or village of Yentai, beautifully situated at the foot of sloping hills, covered with rich vegetation. The population is estimated to number about 10,000, and the port is much frequented by the traders of the province.

Her Majesty's consul left Tien-tsin to proceed to his post in January of this year (1861), and travelled by land to Tang-chow-foo, the distance by the direct road being about 450 miles. Having made the necessary arrangements with the chief authorities, he proceeded to Yentai, where the consular flag was hoisted on the 18th March (1861), and the port was opened to trade. This consulate retains, however, the designation adopted by treaty of "Tang-chow-foo," for the harbour of Che-foo and town of Yentai are within the jurisdiction of that department, as, indeed, is the whole of the Shan-tung promontory running eastward to its point from Hwang-hien on the northern side, and Lai-yang-hien on the south, such being in perfect consonance with the Chinese interpretation of the limits attached to the opening of Tang-chow-foo to foreign trade.

In respect to the actual trade which has taken place since the opening of this port to foreign shipping, no precise information has as yet been attainable, but it is not as yet considerable. In imports, it is well known that, in addition to the usual Southern Chinese manufactures and products brought in junks, British cotton goods and other articles usually imported into China were, even heretofore, habitually sent here from Shanghai, both this port and that of New-chwang being the safety-valves of Shanghai when surplus imports lay there heavily on merchants' hands, owing to interrupted communications with other outlets arising out of the Taeping rebellion or other causes. But the direct trade with the north of China is now in course of rapid development. The carrying trade, by British and other foreign bottoms, from the southern ports to Che-foo, of Chinese-owned goods will, in any case, to a great degree supersede the junk trade. The extent to which this latter trade has hitherto been carried on between the south and north coast of China is exhibited by the fact that, in ordinary times, from 14,000 to 20,000 junks are employed between Shanghai alone and the northern ports; and in respect to their cargoes, it should be added that in 1856 it was stated, upon good authority, that two-thirds of the

manufactured goods imported into Shanghai went in junks to the ports in Shan-tung and to Tien-tsin. The description of articles imported into the province of Shan-tung through Yentai partakes of the same character as those already enumerated as imported into Tien-tsin. But an important import into Shan-tung from Shanghai consists in native-grown raw uncleaned cotton, of which 150,000 bales, of 100 catties each, are calculated to be received there annually.

In exports from the province of Shan-tung through Yentai, or through any of the other ports in that province, nothing is derivable suited for European consumption. But, as at New-chwang, pulse and bean cake offers in sufficient quantities, and serves as a profitable medium of barter for return cargoes to the southern ports, were it not that, as again in the case of New-chwang, its exportation is prohibited by the rules attached to the treaty. This prohibition, which has an undoubtedly injurious influence on British trade in this quarter, in a great measure originated in the desire of the Chinese Government to protect the junk trade against the overwhelming competition of foreign vessels, as well as to check the exportation of grain, arising out of over-prudential motives; for both these prohibited articles are produced greatly in excess of local consumption. But, practically, the exportation of these two articles is partially carried on in foreign vessels by the connivance of the authorities not only at Yentai, but by the official invitation and encouragement of the local Chinese authorities at the ports of Hwang-lien, Lai-yang-hien, Shyh, and Li-tao, all situated around the Shan-tung promontory. But these adventures are made at the serious risk of the cargoes so laden with the connivance of the local authorities, for they are refused permission to be landed at Canton or elsewhere in the south, according to the severity or indulgence of the custom-house at each port. This matter, however, is under the serious consideration of her Majesty's minister in communication with the Prince of Kung.

Formosa.—The Island of Formosa, called by the Chinese "Tai-wan," lies between $20^{\circ} 58'$ and $25^{\circ} 15'$ north latitude, and between 120° and 122° east longitude, and extends from south-by-east to north-by-east about 240 miles. In width it varies from 100 miles at 24° north latitude to 4 miles at its most southern point, but maintains a width of about 60 miles near its northern extremity. The surface is calculated at about 14,000 square miles, or about half the area of Ireland. A mountain range called "Ta-shan," or the "Great Mountain," runs across Formosa from north to south, forming a barrier between the Chinese on the west and the independent and savage tribes inhabiting the eastern side. The highest point of this range is estimated by Humboldt at about 12,000 feet above the sea. The mountains have a steep declivity on both sides, but on the western side they terminate at a considerable distance from the sea, so as to leave a wide tract between them and the shore. On the eastern side, the mountains, gradually descending from their crest, cover nearly the whole space to the sea.

The Chinese inhabitants of the civilized side of Formosa, as opposed to the savage aborigines of the eastern side, are partly emigrants from the Province of Fuh-keen, situated opposite, on the mainland of China, a most industrious race of colonists, and proverbially well-disposed towards foreigners. Some are also descendants of those who lived in relationship with the Dutch when they possessed this part of the island, between the

years 1624 and 1662. The rest of the population on this side is chiefly made up of aborigines who submitted to the Chinese rule in 1662 upon the expulsion of the Dutch, but who preserve their primitive customs. These are by far the most numerous.

The population of this, the Chinese side of Formosa, covering an area of about 8,000 square miles, is now calculated to contain 2,000,000 inhabitants. It should be observed, however, that the Chinese Government discourages emigration from the mainland to this island, as they are derived from the more unruly classes; and relieved, in a measure, from the immediate control and authority of the mandarins, they have, on more than one occasion, broken into rebellion. The Chinese Imperial Government, indeed, pretends to sway and government over the whole island, but its authority is actually restricted to the western side, from the sea to the base of the mountain range, and extending from Kelung in the north to Pongli in the south. Further south of the latter point are independent villages, and still further south are a tribe of aborigines, called by the Chinese "Callee" or "Jungle-men." These are governed by a Queen, who resides in the hills, and are altogether independent of the Imperial Government.

The savage tribes on the eastern side of Formosa are rarely in communication with the Chinese. In some districts a partial trade is carried on between them by bartering skins and cloths made from the bark of a tree for Chinese cotton, and cloths imported from the mainland. The hills among which they live are thickly wooded to the crest, and are full of the camphor-tree, even the boats of the natives being made of that wood. They subsist chiefly on sweet potatoes and deer's flesh. Towards strangers who, from shipwreck or other causes, may approach their coast, they have been found hostile and menacing, and to such as unfortunately fall into their hands, they are barbarous and cruel. The encroachment of the Chinese colonists from the west, however, is gradually driving these wild tribes towards the sea. Foreign trade is, therefore, necessarily confined to the Chinese side of the island, and it is to that part exclusively to which my remarks on the trade and prospects of Formosa hereafter in this report will refer. The northern and western coasts of Formosa afford many advantages for trade. The channel which separates the island from the mainland of China does not exceed from 75 to 120 miles. Japan is only distant about 150 miles, between the nearest points, and the Philippines are nearer still. These are the advantages of Formosa in respect to position. The products of this fertile and rich island are as follows:—wheat, dyes, millet, hemp, maize, oil, rice, oil-cake, sugar, tobacco, camphor, pepper, sulphur, aloes, coal, dried fish, skins, rice-paper plant, timber, together with most of the East Indian fruit, as the pine apples, mangoes, guavas, areca nuts, cocoa-nuts, as also peaches, apricots, figs, grapes, pomegranates, chest-nuts, melons, and oranges.

Swatow.—This port, now fairly opened to foreign trade by treaty, is situated in 23° 19' north latitude, 116° 40' east longitude, at the mouth of the River Han, which disembogues into the sea in the northern part of the sea-coast of Kwang-tung Province. It is in the port of Chin-hai-heen, from which it is distant about two miles. The Han communicates by a branch stream with the Tong-leang river, which in its turn falls into the Pearl at Whampoa, and thus Swatow is in direct water communication with Canton. A considerable trade had sprung up at this port within the last five years, and from the numerous advantages it presented for the

extension of foreign trade in that quarter, a hope had been expressed by some of the principal British houses established in this country at the period when the new treaty was about to be negotiated in 1857 between Great Britain and China, that Swatow might be one of the new ports opened to trade. The cities of Chow-chow-foo, Keih-yang-hien, Chow-yang-hien, Hai-yang-hien, Ta-poo-hien, and Chang-lin, all places more or less of considerable trade, are situated at short distances from this port. The anchorage is excellent, and at half a mile to the south-west of the town there is a depth of eight fathoms.

The staple export from Swatow, as it had long been known, is sugar, which was not only shipped in considerable quantities to Hong Kong, to Singapore, and to Shanghai, but some cargoes had even been sent to California, to the United States, and in one or two instances to Great Britain. But in numerous other articles of import and export the trade was becoming very considerable, although not hitherto brought by public channels into general notice.

Swatow was accordingly one of the nine new ports opened to trade by the Treaty of Tien-tsin of 1858, but the treaty itself not having as yet, at the beginning of 1860, been ratified, the consul appointed to Swatow was not directed to proceed to his post until the operations connected with the renewal of hostilities which intervened were exclusively confined to the north. The American consulate had, however, already been established at this port, and British merchants and British ships frequented it without encountering any obstacles on the part of the local authorities. The British consul, therefore, proceeded to his post, and his office was opened on the 6th July, 1860, while at that very period (such are the anomalies connected with war in China), her Majesty's High Commissioner, accompanied by the British fleet and army, had arrived at Ta-lien-whan Bay to enforce redress for the bad faith of the Chinese Government.

Foreign trade was thus uninterruptedly continued at Swatow (as elsewhere at all the ports south of the Yang-tze-kiang) during the whole period of the renewed hostilities in 1860. The British consulate at Swatow, as before stated, was opened early in July of that year; but the Chinese custom-house, conducted by European employés, had been established from the beginning of the year, and the trading operations of the port for the first time actually recorded and published. The returns for the first six months of that year are amply supplied from that source, and the remaining period, from July to 31st December, are furnished by her Majesty's consul. These united, exhibit the import and export trade in British vessels for the whole year, and amply prove that the favourable anticipations expressed by the mercantile community in respect to the great trading resources and facilities of this port have been fully realized.

Hainan.—This island, the ninth and last on the list of new stations opened to foreign trade by the treaty of 1858, lies between $18^{\circ} 10'$ and $20^{\circ} 24'$ north latitude, and $108^{\circ} 50'$ and 111° east longitude. For governmental purposes it forms a department of the province of Kwang-tung, opposite to the extreme south-western coast of which it is situated, divided by the Looichoo Straits, a channel only fifteen miles wide. It is the most southern of all the places now open to foreign trade in China, and is 2,434 miles distant from Peking. Having crossed the channel to the promontory opposite on the mainland, the distance by land to Canton is about 300 miles. No consular officer has yet been appointed to this port, nor are there yet

any British subjects residing there for the purposes of trade. The following is a summary of all that is known to Europeans or Americans respecting this island. Hainan is about 200 miles in length from south-west to north-east and 100 miles broad. It covers an area of about 20,000 square miles. The interior of the island is occupied by an extensive mountain-mass, from which issue offsets which, towards the south-west and north-east, advance close to the sea; but a level and fertile tract in the centre intervenes from the south-east to the north-west shore of considerable width. The population is estimated at 1,500,000; of these, about 1,000,000 are the descendants of Chinese emigrants who have come here from the province of Fuh-keen, during the last three or four centuries. The language spoken is the dialect of the Fuh-keen slightly varied. Such portion of the inhabitants as are not of Chinese origin are aborigines, residing chiefly in the mountainous parts of the island, and yielding but an imperfect submission to the Imperial Government.

The products of the island are rice (three crops being produced in the year), sugar, the areca or betel-nut, timber, cotton, indigo, cocoa-nuts, salt, tanned hides, sponges, cocoa-nut oil. The sugar-cane and sweet potatoes are extensively cultivated, as also many of the tropical fruits; but the chief wealth of the island consists in its forests, which produce rare woods, as sandal-wood, ebony, braseletto, rose-wood, &c. The imports are Chinese wares and fabrics, English cotton manufactures and woollens, opium, furs, &c., all received from the opposite port in Kwang-tung. They are interchanged with the products enumerated. There is also a good deal of trading intercourse with Siam. The thirteen chief towns of the thirteen districts into which Hainan is divided, are situated at intervals all round the shores of the island: some of them are very populous. Kiung-chow-foo, the capital, is on the northern side opposite the mainland of China. This is the chief mart of trade, and is governed with great precision and order; it will most probably be the place of residence of the British Consul when appointed. The population is estimated at 200,000. Some of the streets are a mile and a-half long, flagged and kept clean, and covered with awnings of various colours in summer. In this city the markets are abundantly supplied with provisions, at extremely cheap rates. Some of the houses are two stories high at the river side, and the climate is not very hot, the island in general being exposed to sea-breezes coming over a large expanse of ocean. Fogs and heavy dews are frequent, maintaining a vigorous vegetation.

The inhabitants are represented as good-humoured and cheerful, and desirous of commercial intercourse with foreigners. Whatever may be the extent to which British commercial interests in China may eventually be benefited by trade with this island, British shipping interests will, it is anticipated, undoubtedly derive, as at Swatow and Formosa, a notable increase of business in the carrying trade, to the gradual exclusion of the uninsurable native craft.

UNITED STATES.

Mr. Irvine, her Majesty's Secretary of Legation, prepared the following report:—It is evident to any one who has studied the extraordinary and rapid advancement in commercial wealth and general prosperity that has been made by the United States of America, that this progress may, in a great measure, be attributed to the union of a wide expanse

of country, including every description of soil and every variety of climate, thus rendering it self-supporting, and, more than any other country, independent of foreign supplies. The interest of each section of the country has led it to select that branch of industry which it was most for its benefit to prosecute. The North-eastern portion has occupied itself with manufactures, mining, and ship-building. The South with the production of cotton, sugar, and rice. The Central States with producing tobacco and hemp, and raising cattle. The Western States with the supply of corn and bread-stuffs.

The South and West have hitherto been almost the sole markets for the produce of the industry of the North, and have supplied in return agricultural produce, both in the shape of cotton for manufacture, and bread-stuffs for the food of the population. The South and West have owed in a great measure to the North the construction of their now numerous lines of railroad which have so much facilitated the communications. New York has been the great commercial centre, both for home productions and for foreign trade; the main portion of the purchases from all parts of the country have been made through agents in that city, and the railroads that traverse the country have conveyed thither for exportation the production of the interior. When the harvests of England and Western Europe are productive, capital there becomes cheap, and manufactures are exported to distant countries. For these New York supplies a large amount of raw materials. When the supply of corn in Europe is deficient, the prices of food rise, and New York pours fourth an ample supply from the granaries of the West. The imports of New York amount usually to about two-thirds of those of the entire Union. The exports to nearly one-third, although the supplies of cotton and rice are usually exported through southern ports.

During the period of the existence of the United States as an independent and united country, occasional difficulties have arisen, caused principally by excessive speculation, which have served to check for a time the growth of the country; but, taken as a whole, the advancement has been steadily progressive, and in the year 1860 the reports of commerce and agriculture show a higher degree of prosperity than had ever hitherto been attained.

The official reports of the commerce of the United States show that in the fiscal year ended the 30th June, 1860, the imports and exports were larger than in any previous year. This will be seen by a comparison of the last four years.

In 1856-57 the amount of the value of the imports was 360,890,141 dollars; and that of the exports to 362,960,682 dollars. In 1857-58 the value of the imports amounted to 282,613,150 dollars; and that of the exports to 324,644,420 dollars. In 1858-59 the value of the imports was 348,768,130 dollars; and that of the exports was 356,789,465 dollars. In 1859-60 the value of the imports was 362,166,254 dollars; and that of the exports was 400,122,296 dollars. The cotton crop of 1859-60 was much larger than that of any previous year; it amounted to 4,675,770 bales. That of 1858-59 was 3,851,481 bales. That of 1857-58 was 3,113,962 bales. That of 1856-57 was 2,939,519 bales.

In 1851 the consumption of sugar by the population of the United States was at the rate of 27 lbs. per head, and in 1860 of 29 lbs. per head; the value of the 27 lbs. in 1851 was 1.22 dollars, and of the 29 lbs. in 1860, 2.03 dollars.

In November, 1860, when the election of Mr. Lincoln as President of the United States became known, the apprehension of political dissensions began to throw obstacles in the way of trade, and when the Southern States, one after the other, left the Union, the prospect of the closing of one of the principal outlets for the fruits of Northern industry brought about a commercial panic. The trade which had been hitherto so prosperous served nothing to avert bankruptcy from many wealthy merchants. The cotton crop had sold well, the corn crops were abundant, with prospects of large sales, the raw materials of manufacture were in good supply, capital cheap, and labour plentiful. It had been expected that the West would recover from its financial difficulties, and become a large purchaser of goods in the spring, and that large supplies would be required for the South. But when the civil war, consequent on the secession movement, was foreseen, it became evident that all communications must cease between the North and the South. The Southern banks consequently refused to discount cotton drafts, and eventually suspended specie payments. The rates of discount were raised by the New York banks. The number and extent of the failures during the last three months of the past year, show the disastrous effects of the panic even at that early period. During the nine months preceding October, the number of failures in the United States was 3,076, whose amount of liability was 45,332,138 dollars; while in the months of October, November, and December, there were 852 failures, with liabilities amounting to 38,687,633 dollars. The amount of the liabilities in these latter failures shows that the bankrupts were of a very different class to those who failed in the previous months of the year; they were men of large capital and good credit, and it was only a serious commercial panic that could reduce them to bankruptcy.

As the work of disunion advanced, the markets of the South became closed to the manufactures of the North and of Europe, and the importers of foreign manufactures countermanded as much as possible their orders for goods from abroad. The new protective tariff which was brought into operation on the 1st of April 1861, and which raised very much the rate of duties on imported goods, would, under other circumstances, have caused an increase in the importation of goods during the time previous to its operation, but the political disturbances prevented this result from being realized.

GOLD COINAGE.

Return of the total Amount of Sovereigns and Half-sovereigns tendered monthly at the Bank of England, by Bankers or by the Public, from the year 1844 to the 31st December, 1861, and of the Amount of such Coin proved too light for being put into Circulation again. (Mr. Alderman Salomons.) February 6, 1863. (7.)

In 1844, the amount of sovereigns and half-sovereigns tendered was 14,996,191*l.*; and rejected, as light, 381,105*l.* In 1845, there were tendered 14,764,069*l.*; rejected, 313,617*l.* In 1846, tendered, 16,610,612*l.*; rejected, 366,470*l.* In 1847, tendered, 20,262,951*l.*; rejected, 449,647*l.* In 1848, tendered, 20,698,882; rejected, 583,119*l.* In 1849, tendered,

18,397,197*l.*; rejected, 511,639*l.* In 1850, tendered, 15,423,019; rejected, 398,653*l.* In 1851, tendered, 16,300,744*l.*; rejected, 601,247*l.* In 1852, tendered, 14,682,869*l.*; rejected, 428,208*l.* In 1853, tendered, 17,135,685*l.*; rejected, 392,570*l.* In 1854, tendered, 20,534,691*l.*; rejected, 413,608*l.* In 1855, tendered, 20,730,839*l.*; rejected, 410,086*l.* In 1856, tendered, 21,420,896*l.*; rejected, 383,056*l.* In 1857, tendered, 23,468,611*l.*; rejected, 536,221*l.* In 1858, tendered, 22,521,478*l.*; rejected, 485,492*l.* In 1859, tendered, 20,429,828*l.*; rejected, 472,677*l.* In 1860, tendered, 21,978,910*l.*; rejected, 593,551*l.*; and in 1861, tendered, 23,304,219*l.*; rejected, 759,784*l.*

COINAGE.

Accounts of all Gold, Silver, and Copper Monies of the Realm coined at the Mint in each Year, from the 1st January, 1852, to the 31st December, 1861, and showing, in one Tabular Statement, the total Amount of Gold, Silver, and Copper Coinage in each Year, the real Cost or Value of the Metal, and the Amounts represented by the Coin. (Mr. Peel.) July 22, 1862. (434.)

GOLD COINAGE.

Date.	Sovereigns.			Half-Sovereigns.			Total Value.	
	No.	£	s. d.	No.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
1852	8,053,435	8,053,435	1 1	1,377,671	688,835	11 10	8,742,270	12 11
1853	10,597,993	10,597,993	2 11	2,708,796	1,354,399	3 0	11,952,391	5 11
1854	3,589,611	3,589,611	0 11	1,125,144	562,572	5 5	4,152,183	6 4
1855	8,448,482	8,448,482	9 4	1,120,362	560,181	0 0	9,008,663	9 4
1856	4,806,160	4,806,159	19 9	2,391,909	1,195,954	19 9	6,002,114	19 6
1857	4,495,748	4,495,748	4 10	728,223	364,111	17 4	4,859,860	2 2
1858	803,234	803,234	4 1	855,578	427,789	5 9	1,231,023	9 10
1859	1,547,603	1,547,603	1 8	2,203,813	1,101,906	13 10	2,649,509	15 6
1860	2,555,958	2,555,958	0 3	1,131,500	565,750	9 9	3,121,708	10 0
1861	7,487,636	7,487,636	16 0	1,130,867	565,433	19 5	8,053,070	15 5
	52,385,860	52,385,862	0 10	14,773,863	7,386,934	6 1	59,772,796	6 11

SILVER COINAGE.

Date.	Florins.			Shillings.			Sixpences.		
	No.	£	s. d.	No.	£	s. d.	No.	£	s. d.
1852	1,014,552	101,455	4 6	1,306,574	65,328	14 9	904,586	22,614	13 4
1853	3,919,950	391,995	1 0	4,256,188	212,809	8 2	3,837,930	95,948	5 1
1854	550,413	55,041	6 1	552,414	27,620	14 6	840,116	21,002	18 1
1855	831,017	83,101	14 0	1,368,499	68,424	19 0	1,129,084	28,227	2 0
1856	2,201,760	220,176	0 0	3,168,000	158,400	0 0	2,779,920	69,498	0 0
1857	1,671,120	167,112	0 0	2,562,120	128,106	0 0	2,233,440	55,836	0 0
1858	2,239,380	223,938	0 0	3,108,600	155,430	0 0	1,932,480	48,312	0 0
1859	2,568,060	256,806	0 0	4,561,920	228,096	0 0	4,688,640	117,216	0 0
1860	635,580	63,558	0 0	1,671,120	83,556	0 0	1,100,880	27,522	0 0
1861	839,520	83,952	0 0	1,382,040	69,102	0 0	601,920	15,048	0 0
	16,471,352	1,647,135	5 7	23,937,475	1,196,873	16 5	20,048,996	501,224	18 6

SILVER COINAGE (*continued*).

Date.	Groats.			Fourpences.			Threepences.		
	No.	£	s. d.	No.	£	s.	No.	£	s. d.
1852	—	—	—	4,158	69	6	4,488	56	2 0
1853	11,890	198	0 0	4,158	69	6	36,168	452	2 0
1854	1,096,613	18,276	17 11	4,158	69	6	1,471,734	18,396	13 6
1855	646,041	10,767	7 0	4,158	69	6	387,838	4,847	19 6
1856	95,040	1,584	0 0	4,158	69	6	1,018,248	12,728	2 0
1857	—	—	—	4,158	69	6	1,762,728	22,034	2 0
1858	—	—	—	4,158	69	6	1,445,928	18,074	2 0
1859	—	—	—	4,158	69	6	3,584,328	44,804	2 0
1860	—	—	—	4,158	69	6	3,410,088	42,626	2 0
1861	—	—	—	4,158	69	6	3,299,208	41,240	2 0
	1,849,574	30,826	4 11	41,580	693	0	16,420,756	205,259	9 0

Date.	Twopences.		Pence.		Total Value of Silver Coined.			Real Cost for Value of Metal.		
	No.	£ s.	No.	£	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1852	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	189,596	12	7	195,471	17	3
1853	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	701,544	14	3	657,611	7	9
1854	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	140,480	8	1	134,330	2	1
1855	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	195,510	19	6	192,002	13	11
1856	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	462,528	0	0	445,454	2	7
1857	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	373,230	0	0	363,679	13	2
1858	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	445,896	0	0	432,678	8	6
1859	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	647,064	0	0	620,031	5	7
1860	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	218,403	7	0	222,981	1	6
1861	4,752	39 12	7,920	33	209,484	0	0	215,029	0	10
	47,520	396 0	79,200	330	3,583,738	1	5	3,479,269	13	2

COPPER COINAGE.

Date.	Pence.			Halfpence.			Farthings.			Half-Farthings.	
	No.	£	s.	No.	£	s. d.	No.	£	s. d.	No.	£ s.
1852	263,424	1,097	12	637,056	1,327	4 0	822,528	856	16 0	989,184	515 4
1853	1,051,440	4,256	0	1,559,040	3,248	0 0	1,028,436	1,071	5 9	955,296	497 11
1854	6,720,000	28,000	0	12,354,048	25,737	12 0	6,504,960	6,776	0 0	677,376	352 16
1855	5,273,856	21,974	8	7,455,837	15,532	19 10½	3,440,640	3,584	0 0	—	—
1856	1,212,288	5,051	4	1,942,080	4,046	0 0	1,771,392	1,845	4 0	913,120	476 0
1857	752,640	3,136	0	1,182,720	2,464	0 0	1,075,200	1,120	0 0	—	—
1858	1,559,040	6,496	0	2,472,960	5,152	0 0	1,720,320	1,792	0 0	—	—
1859	1,075,200	4,480	0	1,290,240	2,688	0 0	1,290,240	1,344	0 0	—	—
1860	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Copper	32,256	134	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bronze	5,053,440	21,056	0	6,630,400	13,813	6 8	2,867,200	2,986	13 4	—	—
1861	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bronze	36,449,280	151,872	0	54,118,400	112,746	13 4	8,601,600	8,960	0 0	—	—
	59,412,864	247,553	12	89,642,781	186,755	15 10½	29,122,516	30,335	19	1,353,776	1,841 11

Date.	Total Value of Copper Coined.			Purchase Value of Copper.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1852	3,796	16	0	1,403	19	1
1853	9,072	16	9	4,831	3	1
1854	60,866	8	0	32,192	10	11
1855	41,091	7	10½	22,013	4	11
1856	11,418	8	0	6,422	17	0
1857	6,720	0	0	3,492	0	0
1858	13,440	0	0	6,668	16	0
1859	8,512	0	0	3,962	9	0
1860 :—						
Copper	134	8	0	9,185	2	11
Bronze	37,856	0	0			
1861 :—						
Bronze	273,578	13	4	96,735	6	8
Total	466,486	17	11½	186,907	9	7

The yearly average price paid per ounce for silver bullion purchased in the market for coinage in the years 1852 to 1861, both inclusive, was as follows:—

1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
d.	d.	d.	d.	d.	d.	d.	d.	d.	d.
61½	61½	61½	61½	61½	61½	61½	61½	61½	61½

SARDINIAN LOAN.

An Account of the total Sum issued up to the 31st December, 1861, out of the Consolidated Fund, and advanced to his Majesty the King of Sardinia, by virtue of the Acts 18 Vict. c. 17 & 19 & 20 Vict. c. 39; and also of the Sums received from the Sardinian Government for Interest and Sinking Fund in respect thereof, in the same period. (65.)

THE sum issued out of the Consolidated Fund was 2,000,000*l.*; the sum received for interest and sinking fund amounted to 724,610*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*; leaving 1,875,389*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.* to be discharged.

ANNUITIES.

Account of Annuities for Lives and for Terms of Years granted in each Year since 1808 inclusive; and Amount of Capital Stock cancelled in each of the said Years on Account of such Terminable Annuities; and Amount of Annuities for Lives and for Terms of Years which have ceased in each Year since 1808 inclusive. (Sir Stafford Northcote.) July 17, 1862. (419.)

THE amount of capital stock of annuities for lives transferred and cancelled, including stock purchased with money, from the 1st September, 1808, to the 31st December, 1861, was 34,326,691*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*; the amount of long annuities transferred and cancelled, 25,120*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*; the annuities for lives

granted, 3,121,462*l.* 8*s.* 0*d.*; the annuities for lives expired, 2,084,827*l.* 8*s.* 0*d.*; the capital stock of annuities for terms of years transferred and cancelled, including stock purchased with money, 20,240,708*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.*; the long annuities transferred and cancelled, 141,269*l.* 14*s.* 0*d.*; the annuities for terms of years granted, 1,750,580*l.* 12*s.* 0*d.*; the annuities for terms of years expired, 1,673,564*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.*

FIRE INSURANCE.

Return of all Sums paid into the Inland Revenue Office in Great Britain and Ireland, for Duty on Insurance against Fire, for the Year 1861.
(Mr. Heygate.) March 27, 1862. (353.)

ENGLAND.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Alliance ...	46,592	16	6	Birmingham ...	16,066	5	1
Atlas ...	41,457	13	7	Birmingham District ...	9,044	5	7
Church of England ...	5,058	16	8	Essex and Suffolk... ..	7,229	13	1
Commercial Union ...	3,457	18	8	Hants, Sussex, and Dorset ...	2,308	4	3
County ...	69,184	2	10	Kent ...	15,290	14	8
Emperor ...	742	15	4	Lancashire ...	24,203	5	6
General ...	17,893	10	6	Leeds and Yorkshire ...	29,653	2	7
Globe ...	42,796	0	6	Liverpool and London ...	61,833	18	7
Guardian ...	34,487	7	9	Manchester ...	42,178	15	8
Hand-in-Hand ...	10,330	4	6	Midland Counties ...	5,590	1	10
Imperial ...	62,735	3	10	Norwich Equitable ...	3,136	11	6
Law ...	38,225	14	11	Norwich Union ...	83,076	0	10
Law Union ...	8,002	8	11	Nottingham and Derbyshire .	5,145	7	8
London ...	33,513	16	3	Provincial ...	7,433	13	1
Mercantile ...	4,079	17	10	Queen ...	7,854	5	5
Phoenix ...	137,547	19	2	Royal ...	61,480	7	9
Preserver ...	45	3	5	Salop ...	4,147	13	10
Royal Exchange ...	81,863	8	3	Sheffield ...	3,732	15	7
Royal Farmers ...	12,518	18	9	Shropshire and North Wales	2,086	12	2
State ...	2,912	18	3	West of England ...	54,690	11	9
Sun ...	208,669	10	5	Yorkshire ...	23,307	11	5
Union ...	81,638	2	11				
United Kingdom Provident...	1,524	18	1	Total ...	£		
Unity ...	16,076	5	1				
Westminster ...	31,809	15	9				

IRELAND.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Alliance ...	4,935	5	5	Norwich Union ...	1,062	6	11
Atlas ...	3,923	5	11	National ...	7,134	18	3
County ...	2,973	16	5	Northern (arrears) ...	18	12	7
Caledonian ...	218	12	9	Phoenix (ditto) ...	17	11	11
Church of England ...	540	18	11	Patriotic ...	6,596	7	11
District ...	14	11	11	Provincial Welsh ...	456	6	8
Globe ...	5,088	1	1	Queen ...	709	1	6
Hand-in-Hand ...	4	5	6	Royal Farmers ...	32	17	6
Imperial ...	3,999	15	11	Royal Exchange ...	5,726	6	4
Kent ...	504	3	10	Royal ...	5,993	4	10
Liverpool and London ...	4,144	0	10	Sun ...	10,574	11	3
Lancashire ...	1,008	15	10	Scottish Provincial ...	992	8	11
Law Union ...	54	1	6	State ...	192	3	10
London Union ...	1,553	3	7	Unity ...	999	15	11
London Corporation ...	1,815	5	8	United Kingdom Provident...	20	16	6
Mercantile ...	1,094	9	2	West of England... ..	6,801	8	9
North British ...	1,769	4	5				
Norwich Equitable ...	29	11	0	Total ...	£80,495	9	3

SCOTLAND.						£	s.	d.
Scottish Union Insurance Company	33,586	1	1
North British Insurance Company	33,206	8	3
Caledonian Insurance Company	13,417	9	1
National Insurance Company	7,039	13	0
Northern Insurance Company	21,924	5	5
Scottish Provincial Insurance Company	9,878	7	10
Stewarton, Dunlop, and Fenwick Mutual Insurance Society	3	0	0
Total	£119,106	4	8

SUMS INSURED BY EACH OFFICE ON FARMING STOCK.

ENGLAND.						£	s.	d.
Alliance	2,816,554		
Atlas	1,248,976		
Church of England	21,337		
Commercial Union	5,400		
County	7,975,362		
Emperor	5,770		
General	154,603		
Globe	1,089,711		
Guardian	372,981		
Hand-in-Hand	42,760		
Imperial	895,795		
Law	148,709		
Law Union	176,385		
London	393,389		
Mercantile	9,300		
Phoenix	4,589,915		
Preserver	nil.		
Royal Exchange	4,298,663		
Royal Farmers	4,419,583		
State	60,802		
Sun	8,533,744		
Union	314,646		
United Kingdom Provident	12,416		
Unity	664,246		
Westminster	246,593		
Birmingham	779,323		
District	291,421		
Essex and Suffolk	1,477,873		
Hants, Sussex, and Dorset	161,363		
Kent	1,103,466		
Lancashire	321,722		
Leeds and Yorkshire	682,257		
Liverpool and London	920,238		
Manchester	1,031,884		
Midland Counties	1,234,471		
Norwich Equitable	255,129		
Norwich Union	10,036,762		
Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire	482,745		
Provincial	1,767,911		
Queen	25,663		
Royal	894,828		
Salop	561,898		
Sheffield	66,740		
Shropshire and North Wales	346,630		
West of England	1,441,793		
Yorkshire	3,267,284		
Total	£65,648,041		

IRELAND.						£	s.	d.
Alliance	79,615		
Atlas	66,416		
Country	52,551		
Caledonian	840		
Church of England	3,165		
District	nil.		
Globe	30,645		
Hand-in-Hand	nil.		
Imperial	59,990		
Kent	4,600		
Liverpool and London	41,838		
Lancashire	6,600		
Law Union	nil.		
London Union	14,850		
London Corporation	5,010		
Mercantile	40,081		
North British	28,967		
Norwich Equitable	nil.		
Norwich Union	25,340		
National	70,100		
Patriotic	112,165		
Provincial Welsh	2,450		
Queen	3,800		
Royal Farmers	1,900		
Royal Exchange	63,815		
Royal	120,914		
Sun	131,203		
Scottish Provincial	31,139		
State	1,000		
Unity	18,017		
United Kingdom Provident	nil.		
West of England	104,345		
Total	£1,121,556		

SCOTLAND.						£	s.	d.
Scottish Union Insurance Company	1,680,347	0	0
North British Insurance Company	1,686,218	0	0
Caledonian Insurance Company	825,066	0	0
National Insurance Company	543,465	5	9
Northern Insurance Company	1,319,920	0	0
Scottish Provincial Insurance Company	748,287	16	8
Stewarton, Dunlop, and Fenwick Mutual Insurance Society	22,706	0	0
Total	£6,826,010	1	8

FINANCE ACCOUNTS.

The Finance Accounts of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland for the Financial Year 1861-62, ended 31st March, 1862.

THE whole financial operations of the Lords Commissioners of her Majesty's Treasury in connection with the income and expenditure of the United Kingdom between the 1st April, 1861, and 31st March, 1862, was as follows:—The balance in the Exchequer on the 31st March, 1861, was 6,672,132*l.* 2*s.* 10*d.*; the revenue during the year was 69,674,478*l.* 19*s.* 11*d.*; repayment of advances 1,559,305*l.* 7*s.* 1*d.*; money raised by creation of additional debt 970,000*l.*; Exchequer Bills issued 12,899,400*l.*; temporary advances received 10,976,932*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.*: total receipts 102,752,248*l.* 13*s.* The expenditure was as follows:—The interest of the debt 26,142,606*l.* 6*d.*; civil list and miscellaneous charges 2,915,572*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.*; army, militia, civil services, &c. 43,028,306*l.* 16*s.* 7*d.*; advance by way of loan 1,305,476*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.*; redemption of funded debt 24,179*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.*; redemption of unfunded debt 13,070,500*l.*; temporary advances repaid 10,976,932*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.*; leaving a balance in the Exchequer of 5,288,675*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.*: total 102,752,248*l.* 13*s.*

The accounts of the income of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the United Kingdom respectively, were as follow:—The total income, including balances, amounted, for Great Britain, to 65,491,128*l.* 11*s.*; for Ireland, 7,084,348*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.*: total, United Kingdom, 72,575,477*l.* 2*s.* 4*d.* The gross public income in the year ended 30th June, 1861, was 72,899,326*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.*; 30th September, 1861, 71,251,676*l.* 8*s.* 7*d.*; 31st December, 70,818,058*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*; and 31st March, 1861, 72,086,485*l.* 3*s.* 5*d.* The net public income amounted as follows:—Year ended 30th June, 1861, 68,349,730, 10*s.* 10*d.*; 30th September, 1861, 66,579,570*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.*; 31st December, 1861, 66,120,091*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.*; 31st March, 1862, 67,386,904*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.* The public expenditure, including the salaries, &c., of revenue departments, was in the year ended 30th June, 1861, 72,899,326*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.*; 30th September, 1861, 71,251,676*l.* 8*s.* 7*d.*; 31st December, 1861, 70,818,058*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*; 31st March, 1862, 72,086,485*l.* 3*s.* 5*d.* And exclusive of such expenditure for the collection and management of the revenue departments for the year ended 30th June, 1861, 68,349,700*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.*; 30th September, 1861, 66,579,570*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.*; 31st December, 1861, 66,120,091*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.*; 31st March, 1862, 67,386,904*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.*

The account of the Consolidated Fund was as follows:—The total income applicable to the Consolidated Fund was 69,674,478*l.* 19*s.* 10*d.*; money raised by creation of annuities 970,000*l.*; repayment on account of advances made for the purchase of bullion 1,559,305*l.* 7*s.* 1*d.*; Exchequer Ways and Means Bill 1,000,000*l.*: total 73,203,784*l.* 7*s.*; the payments with interest of debt amounted to 25,812,955*l.* 6*s.* 11*d.*; civil lists and other charges 1,945,572*l.* 6*s.* 4*d.*; expense of fortifications 970,000*l.*; advance for purchase of bullion 1,305,476*l.* 2*s.* 2*d.*; Exchequer ways and means bills 1,000,000*l.*: total 31,034,003*l.* 15*s.* 5*d.*, leaving a surplus of 42,169,780*l.* 11*s.* 7*d.* The sums voted for the general collection of the public income of the United Kingdom, for the expense of the Post-office packet service, and for superannuations of the revenue departments, amounted in all to 5,724,238*l.* The actual expenditure was 5,599,633*l.* 11*s.* 7*d.* The expenditure was less in the customs, inland revenue, and superannuation, but more in the Post-office and packet service, principally in contracts.

The customs revenue shewed the following items:—The gross receipts were, for Great Britain, 21,651,271*l.* 9*d.*; Ireland 2,286,500*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.*; United Kingdom 23,937,772*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.* Drawbacks and bounties on goods exported, Great Britain 185,304*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.*; Ireland 69*l.* 16*s.* 11*d.*: total 185,374*l.* 7*s.* 5*d.* Repayments on over entries, damaged goods, &c., Great Britain 54,880*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.*; Ireland 4,562*l.* 9*s.*: total 59,442*l.* 13*s.* 8*d.* Net produce after deducting drawbacks, repayments, &c., Great Britain 21,411,086*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.*; Ireland 2,281,868*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.*: total 23,692,955*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.* Besides this there were 398,822*l.* 10*s.* 11½*d.* balances in hands at the commencement of the year, and 249,097*l.* 8*s.* 11*d.* advances for charges of collection outstanding on 31st March, 1861, giving a total income of 24,340,875*l.* Of this sum 23,674,000*l.* was paid into the Exchequer, 422,827*l.* 9*s.* remained of balances on hand, and 244,047*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.* remained outstanding of advances for charges of collection.

The account of the inland revenues shows the following state:—On the 31st March, 1861, there were balances in hand amounting to 1,214,841*l.* 1*s.* 10½*d.* The gross receipts amounted to 41,955,741*l.* 18*s.* 8½*d.*; which, deducting drawbacks, discounts, and repayments 1,465,477*l.* 13*s.* 10½*d.*, gave a net receipt of 40,490,264*l.* 4*s.* 10½*d.*, making a total income of 41,705,105*l.* 6*s.* 9*d.*: viz., 37,346,312*l.* 11*s.* 11½*d.* for Great Britain, and 4,358,792*l.* 14*s.* 9½*d.* Ireland. Of this sum 40,447,945*l.* 5*s.* was paid into the Exchequer, and 1,257,160*l.* 1*s.* 9*d.* were balances in the hands of the receiving officers, &c.

The accounts of the Post-office were as follows:—On the 31st March, 1861, there were balances and bills outstanding amounting to 765,367*l.* 18*s.* The net receipts amounted to 3,283,275*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.* for Great Britain, 269,420*l.* 7*s.* to Ireland; total, 3,552,695*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*: giving a total income of 4,318,062*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.* Of this sum 3,510,000*l.* was paid into the Exchequer, and 808,062*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.* were balances in hand.

The accounts of the Woods and Forests and Land Revenues were as follow:—The balances in hand on the 1st April, 1861, amounted to 46,492*l.* 1*s.* 2*d.* The gross receipts for the year amounted to 417,408*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.* Of this sum 295,000*l.* was paid into the Exchequer, 137,142*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.* were expended for the collection in salaries, allowances, and other payments for improvements, repairs, &c., and 31,757*l.* 19*s.* 10*d.* were balances in hand.

The miscellaneous receipts amounted to 1,747,533*l.* 14*s.* 11*d.*, which included many items. The fees at the House of Commons amounted to 79,015*l.* The trustees of the King of the Belgians repaid 36,000*l.* The old stores sold were, army stores 363,045*l.*, navy stores 191,952*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.*; total, 554,998*l.* 7*s.* 1*d.* Seignorage upon silver and copper coinage at the Mint 69,580*l.* 9*s.* Proceeds of sale of books, waste papers, &c. 21,079*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.* Income of *London Gazette* 19,499*l.*, *Edinburgh Gazette* 3,668*l.* 18*s.*, *Dublin Gazette* 1,310*l.* 15*s.* Conscience money 7,573*l.* China indemnity 266,000*l.*

The sum paid in the year ended 31st March, 1862, in respect of the public funded debt for interest and management was 23,703,737*l.* 17*s.* 5*d.*, for terminable annuities 1,837,967*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.* The sum paid for management was as follows: charge on 600,000,000*l.*, at 340*l.* per million, 204,000*l.*; on 136,278,362*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.*, at 300*l.* per million, 40,883*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.*: total, 244,883*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.* Deduct, for payment from the Bank, 188,078*l.*, there remains 56,805*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.* Management of the South Sea Company capital (3,328,300*l.*), and on the original Bank capital (3,200,000*l.*),

1,964*l.* 14*s.* 4*d.* Total paid to the Bank of England 58,770*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*
Expenses of the National Debt office 12,000*l.* Total 70,770*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*

During the year there were paid 600,900*l.* for interest of Exchequer Bills and Exchequer Bonds.

The sums appropriated to the charge of the Civil List was 404,260*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.*

The salaries and allowances paid out of the Consolidated Fund amounted in all to 155,859*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.*, and it included the salary of the Speaker of the House of Commons 5,000*l.*, of the comptroller of the Exchequer 2,000*l.*, of the four audit commissioners 5,100*l.* in all, lunacy commission 9,800*l.*, Scotch clergy 17,039*l.*, clergy West Indies 20,300*l.*, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland 21,000*l.*

The miscellaneous services paid out of the Consolidated Fund amounted to 1,172,276*l.* 10*s.* 7*d.*, including interest of the Russian Dutch loan 78,993*l.*, interest on Greek loan 47,213*l.*, Greenwich Hospital 20,000*l.*, secret service 10,000*l.*, fortifications 970,000*l.*, &c.

The allowances for the purchase of bullion and for local public works amounted to 1,305,476*l.*

The account of the Public Works Loan Commissioners show the following items:—The issues to the commissioners to 31st March, 1862, amounted to 14,992,378*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.* The advances amounted to 14,267,181*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.*, leaving a balance of 725,197*l.* The advances were for baths and wash-houses, bridges and ferries, burial boards, canals, rivers, and drainage, churches and parochial chapels, collieries and mines, fisheries, improvements of cities and towns, law courts, lunatic asylums, railways, roads, Thames Tunnel, workhouses, &c. The Commissioners of Public Works in Ireland advanced 10,917,016*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.* for drainage, land improvement, repairs of roads, &c. Of this sum there was repaid into the Exchequer 4,782,958*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.* The Paymaster-General, Dublin, advanced by way of loan 12,688,354*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.*, of which the sum of 5,251,782*l.* 18*s.* 7*d.* was repaid into the Exchequer.

The annuities and pensions paid out of the Consolidated Fund were as follow:—

ANNUITIES TO THE ROYAL FAMILY.

The Trustees of his Royal Highness Leopold George, Prince of Saxe Coburg, now King of the Belgians, 50,000*l.* Of this sum 36,000*l.* has been repaid to the Exchequer.

Her Royal Highness the Duchess of Kent, to March 16, 1861, 5,833*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*

Her Royal Highness the Duchess of Cambridge, 6,000*l.*

His Royal Highness Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg and Gotha, to December 14, 1861, 28,103*l.* 9*s.*

Her Royal Highness the Princess Augusta, Duchess of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, 3,000*l.*

His Royal Highness the Duke of Cambridge, 12,000*l.*

Her Royal Highness the Princess Mary of Cambridge, 3,000*l.*

Her Royal Highness the Princess Royal, now Crown Princess of Prussia, 8,000*l.*

PENSIONS FOR NAVAL AND MILITARY SERVICES.

Lord Rodney and Dowager Lady Rodney (to all and every the heirs male to whom the title of Lord Rodney shall descend), 1,000*l.* each.

Viscount Duncan, now Earl of Camperdown (for life), 2,000*l.* and 997*l.* 9*s.*

Earl Morley, in trust for Earl Amherst (to the representatives of Jeffery Earl Amherst), 3,000*l.*

Viscount St. Vincent (to the present viscount and his successor), 2,000*l.* and 1,000*l.*

Earl Nelson and Frances Elizabeth Countess Nelson (to whom the title of Earl Nelson shall descend), 3,500*l.* and 1,500*l.*

The Duke of Wellington (to the present duke and his successor), 2,000*l.*

Viscount Combermere (to the present viscount and two next heirs male on whom the title shall descend), 2,000*l.*

Viscount Exmouth (to the heirs male on whom the title shall descend), 2,000*l.*

Lord Seaton (to the present baron and two next heirs male who may succeed to the title), 2,000*l.*

Lord Keane (to the present baron and his successor), 2,000*l*.
 Lord Hardinge (to the present viscount and next heir male who may succeed to the title), 3,000*l*.
 Lord Gough, 2,000*l*. per annum, (to the present baron and two next heirs male who may succeed to the title 1,000*l*.); while receiving a pension of 2,000*l*. from the revenues of India.
 Lord Raglan (to the present baron and next heir male who may succeed to the title), 2,000*l*.
 Lady Raglan (for life), 1,000*l*.
 Sir William F. Williams, Bart. (for life), 1,000*l*.
 Sir Henry Marshman Havelock, Bart. (for life), 1,000*l*.
 Lady Havelock (for life), 1,000*l*.

PENSIONS FOR CIVIL SERVICES.

Granville John Penn (to the heirs of William Penn for ever), 4,000*l*.
 Lord Colchester (for his life), 3,000*l*.
 Viscount Canterbury (for his life), 3,000*l*.; this pension is subject to reduction in the event of Viscount Canterbury succeeding to compensation for the abolished office of registrar of the Prerogative Court of Canterbury.
 Viscount Eversley (for his life), 4,000*l*.
 The trustees of the family of the late Right Hon. George Canning (during the life of his second son, Charles Canning, now Viscount Canning), 3,000*l*.

*First Class (2,000*l*.)*

Lord Glenelg, 2,000*l*.
 The Right Hon. Sir George Grey, moiety to July 24, 1861, 548*l*. 19*s*. 5*d*.
 The Right Hon. Benjamin Disraeli, 2,000*l*.
 One vacant.

*Second Class (1,400*l*.)*

Two vacant.

*Third Class (1,200*l*.)*

The Right Hon. Stephen Rumbold Lushington, 1,500*l*.
 The Right Hon. Sir George Clerk, Bart., 1,200*l*.
 Two vacant.

*Fourth Class (1,000*l*.)*

The Right Hon. S. M. Philipps, late U. S. S. Home Department, 1,000*l*.
 The Right Hon. H. U. Addington, late U. S. S., Foreign Department, 600*l*.; receives also a diplomatic pension of 900*l*. per annum.
 Robert William Hay, late U. S. S. Colonial Department, to May 9, 1861, 343*l*. 8*s*. 1*d*.
 Rear-Admiral W. A. B. Hamilton, late Second Secretary to the Admiralty, 1,000*l*.
 Three vacant.

Green, Philip James, officer of the late Levant Company, to January 10, 1861, 4*l*. 3*s*. 4*d*.
 Blewitt, Thomas E., officer of the late African Company, 65*l*.
 Fountaine, John, officer of the late African Company, to March 6, 1861, 32*l*. 10*s*.
 Heather, John, officer of the late African Company, 100*l*.
 Sewell, William B., officer of the late African Company, 130*l*.
 Adams, William D., officer of the late Lottery Office, 375*l*.
 Earle, Percival H., officer of the late Lottery Office, 133*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*.
 Brereton, Frederick William, officer of the late Exchequer in England, 467*l*.
 Frederick, Arthur, officer of the late Exchequer in England, 141*l*.
 Gimingham, John, officer of the late Exchequer in England, to April 4, 1861, 109*l*. 17*s*. 9*d*.
 Glasce, William B., officer of the late Exchequer in England, 108*l*.
 Mayhew, Thomas P., officer of the late Exchequer in England, 396*l*.
 Nottidge, Charles, officer of the late Exchequer in England, 260*l*.
 Penwarne, John, officer of the late Exchequer in England, 291*l*.
 Roberts, William Henry, officer of the late Exchequer in England, 875*l*.
 Taylor, Henry, officer of the late Exchequer in England, 50*l*.
 Walford, Edward, officer of the late Exchequer in England, 83*l*.
 Welch, Martial L., officer of the late Exchequer in England, 383*l*.
 Wilde, Samuel F. T., officer of the late Exchequer in England, 500*l*.
 Edward Mitchell, late second senior clerk, Irish treasury, 505*l*. 19*s*. 4*d*.
 Wm. D. Delap, late chief clerk in the Irish Exchequer Office in London, 248*l*. 6*s*.
 The Earl of Roden, late auditor-general of the Exchequer, Ireland, 2,698*l*. 5*s*. 4*d*.
 Thomas Ferrall, late clerk, military audit office, Ireland, 208*l*. 15*s*. 4*d*.
 William Johnston, late clerk, military audit office, Ireland, 43*l*. 2*s*. 8*d*.
 Henry Newton, late clerk, military audit office, Ireland, 110*l*. 10*s*.
 Willoughby C. Newton, late clerk, military audit office, Ireland, 85*l*.
 Thomas Quinton, late clerk, military audit office, Ireland, 55*l*.
 Jacob M. Wanty, late clerk, military audit office, Ireland, 124*l*. 10*s*.
 Robert Douglas, late clerk, military audit office, Ireland, 32*l*. 6*s*.
 Ann Barrett, late office-keeper, 14*l*. 8*s*. 8*d*.
 George Archdall, commissioner of late board of works, Ireland, 177*l*. 11*s*. 8*d*.

PENSIONS FOR JUDICIAL SERVICES.

Lord Brougham and Vaux, late Lord Chancellor, 5,000*l*.
 Lord Lyndhurst, late Lord Chancellor, 5,000*l*.
 Lord St. Leonards, late Lord Chancellor, 5,000*l*.
 Lord Cranworth, late Lord Chancellor, 5,000*l*.
 Lord Chelmsford, late Lord Chancellor, 5,000*l*.
 The Right Hon. Joseph Napier, late Lord Chancellor, Ireland, 3,692*l*. 6*s*.
 The Right Hon. Francis Blackburn, late Lord Chancellor, Ireland, 3,692*l*. 6*s*.
 Sir Thomas Erskine, late puisne judge, Common Pleas, 3,500*l*.
 Sir John Taylor Coleridge, Queen's Bench, 3,500*l*.
 Sir J. Patteson, Queen's Bench, to June 28, 1861, 1,682*l*. 13*s*. 10*d*.
 Sir Hugh Hill, Queen's Bench, from December 4, 1861, 331*l*. 17*s*. 11*d*.
 Lord Wensleydale, late Baron Court of Exchequer, 3,500*l*.
 Sir Thomas J. Platt, late Baron Court of Exchequer, 3,500*l*.
 Sir James Wigram, late Vice Chancellor, 3,500*l*.
 Charles Henegge Elsley, late judge, County Court, 800*l*.
 Serjeant H. Storks, late judge, County Court, 1,000*l*.
 Benjamin Parham, late judge, County Court, to August 16, 1861, 502*l*. 3*s*. 6*d*.
 Edward Cooke, late judge, County Court, from May 1, 1861, 400*l*. 10*s*. 11*d*.
 John Johnes, late judge, County Court, from October 31, 1861, 134*l*. 15*s*. 8*d*.
 Right Hon. Philip Cecil Crampton, late justice of Queen's Bench, Ireland, 2,400*l*.
 Right Hon. Louis Perrin, late Justice of Queen's Bench, Ireland, 2,400*l*.
 The Hon. John Richards, late Baron Court of Exchequer, Ireland, 2,400*l*.
 The Right Hon. Richard Greene, late Baron Court of Exchequer, Ireland, from February 12 to March 3, 1861, 266*l*. 13*s*. 4*d*.
 Acheson Lyle, Master in Chancery, from October 12, 1860, 623*l*. 11*s*. 3*d*.
 Viscount Avonmore, Principal Registrar, Court of Chancery, Ireland, 4,199*l*. 19*s*.
 John Brennan, Principal Registrar, Court of Chancery, Ireland, 952*l*. 10*s*. 4*d*.
 Mervyn Stewart, Second Clerk, or Lord Treasurer's Remembrancer, 575*l*. 10*s*. 4*d*.
 John Stewart, for life of Mervyn Stewart, Deputy to Lord Treasurer's Remembrancer, 298*l*. 7*s*. 8*d*.
 John Stewart (for life), Secondary in the Office of Second Clerk, or Lord Treasurer's Remembrancer, 62*l*. 8*s*. 4*d*.
 George Tomb, Assistant Barrister, County Wicklow, 276*l*. 18*s*. 4*d*.
 John Gibson, Assistant Barrister, County Antrim, 733*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*.
 Hon. John Plunkett, Assistant Barrister, County Meath, 466*l*. 13*s*. 4*d*.
 Edward Tickle, Assistant Barrister, County Armagh, 733*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*.
 Jonathan Henn, Assistant Barrister, County Donegal, 733*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*.

HEREDITARY PENSIONS, TRANSFERRED FROM GROSS REVENUES.

The Duke of Marlborough, 4,000*l*.
 The Heirs of the Duke of Schomberg, 2,160*l*.
 Moiety of the Earl of Bath's pension, 1,200*l*.

MISCELLANEOUS PENSIONS.

The Servants of her late Majesty Queen Charlotte, 1,178*l*. 16*s*. 8*d*.
 The Servants of his late Majesty George the Third, 1,075*l*. 14*s*. 4*d*.
 The Servants of her late Majesty Queen Caroline, 279*l*. 12*s*.
 Pensions formerly on the Civil List of their late Majesties George the Fourth and William the Fourth, the Hereditary Revenues of Scotland, and $\frac{1}{4}$ per Cent. Duties, 31,127*l*. 9*s*. 3*d*.
 The Trustees of Mrs. Sarah Hamilton and her Children, 625*l*. 0*s*. 8*d*.
 Annuities granted in Ireland, 184*l*. 12*s*. 4*d*.
 Charles Joseph Jolly, Doorkeeper, House of Lords, Ireland, for loss of emoluments by the Union, 82*l*. 0*s*. 2*d*.
 Mary Anne Forster, now Tomes, Housemaid, House of Lords, Ireland, for loss of emoluments by the Union, 18*l*. 0*s*. 10*d*.
 Persons who suffered by the Rebellion in Ireland, in 1798, 129*l*. 5*s*. 2*d*.
 Pensions formerly on the Civil List, Ireland, 9,108*l*. 0*s*. 7*d*.

The salaries and pensions paid out of the Consolidated Fund for the diplomatic service were as follow :—

SALARIES AND ALLOWANCES.

FRANCE.				TURKEY.			
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Ambassador	10,000	0	0	Ambassador	8,000	0	0
Secretary of Embassy	1,434	0	0	Secretary of Embassy	937	10	0
First Paid Attaché	400	0	0	Oriental Secretary	600	0	0
Second Paid Attaché	300	0	0	First Paid Attaché	350	0	0
Third Paid Attaché	209	0	7	Second Paid Attaché	300	0	0
Military Attaché	500	0	0	Third Paid Attaché	300	0	0
Naval Attaché	500	0	0	Fourth Paid Attaché	300	0	0

SALARIES AND ALLOWANCES (continued).

RUSSIA.			HANOVER.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	9,272	10 0	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	3,264	13 10
Secretary of Legation	900	0 0	Secretary of Legation	605	0 0
First Paid Attaché	400	0 0			
Second Paid Attaché	300	0 0			
AUSTRIA.			BELGIUM.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	8,141	13 4	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	4,000	0 0
Secretary of Legation	1,042	7 10	Secretary of Legation	500	0 0
First Paid Attaché	400	0 0	Paid Attaché	250	0 0
Second Paid Attaché	300	0 0			
SPAIN.			DENMARK.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	5,875	0 0	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	4,000	0 0
Secretary of Legation	1,117	2 10	Secretary of Legation	500	0 0
Paid Attaché.....	250	0 0	Paid Attaché	250	0 0
PRUSSIA.			BAVARIA.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	5,394	16 1	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	3,684	9 8
Secretary of Legation	1,000	0 0	Secretary of Legation	933	0 0
First Paid Attaché	350	0 0	Paid Attaché	250	0 0
Second Paid Attaché	339	0 0			
Military Paid Attaché	500	0 0			
UNITED STATES.			SARDINIA.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	5,100	0 0	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary	1,125	0 0
Secretary of Legation	700	0 0	Secretary of Legation	125	0 0
First Paid Attaché	300	0 0	First Paid Attaché	88	18 9
Second Paid Attaché	250	0 0	Second Paid Attaché	62	10 0
ITALY.			WURTEMBERG.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	4,125	0 0	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	2,300	0 0
Secretary of Legation	525	0 0	Secretary of Legation	288	5 7
First Paid Attaché	262	10 0	Paid Attaché	286	9 3
Second Paid Attaché	187	10 0			
Chargé des Archives at Naples	188	0 0			
Two SICILIES.			FRANKFORT.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	1,100	0 0	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	3,044	1 2
Secretary of Legation	125	0 0	Secretary of Legation	620	0 0
First Paid Attaché	62	10 0	Paid Attaché	250	0 0
Chargé des Archives.....	90	0 0			
PORTUGAL.			SAXONY.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	4,400	0 0	Minister Plenipotentiary.....	2,088	5 6
Secretary of Legation	500	0 0	Secretary of Legation	994	0 0
Paid Attaché.....	250	0 0			
BRAZIL.			SWITZERLAND.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	3,656	0 11	Minister Plenipotentiary	2,250	0 0
Secretary of Legation	1,622	17 8	Secretary of Legation	400	0 0
Paid Attaché.....	250	0 0			
HOLLAND.			GREECE.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	2,902	2 9	Minister Plenipotentiary.....	3,318	3 11
Secretary of Legation	1,052	6 8	Secretary of Legation	460	2 6
Paid Attaché.....	250	0 0	Paid Attaché	250	0 0
SWEDEN.			MEXICO.		
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.....	3,400	0 0	Minister Plenipotentiary.....	3,244	10 2
Secretary of Legation	500	0 0	Secretary of Legation	829	15 9
Paid Attaché.....	250	0 0	Paid Attaché	245	16 8
Chargé des Archives.....	52	0 0	Second Paid Attaché	250	0 0
			ARGENTINE CONFEDERATION.		
			Minister Plenipotentiary.....	3,300	0 0
			Secretary of Legation	500	0 0
			Paid Attaché	250	0 0
			Chargé des Archives at Parana	324	0 0
			CENTRAL AMERICA REPUBLICS.		
			Minister	337	8 3
			Paid Attaché	75	7 9
			ROME.		
			Attaché on Special Mission	600	0 0

SALARIES AND ALLOWANCES (*continued*).

MOROCCO.			MONTE VIDEO.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Minister Plenipotentiary	400	0 0	Chargé d'Affaires	1,695	0 0
Paid Attaché	250	0 0			
NEW GRENADA.			EQUATOR.		
Chargé d'Affaires	1,965	0 0	Chargé d'Affaires	739	12 9
VENEZUELA.			GUATEMALA.		
Chargé d'Affaires	1,700	0 0	Chargé d'Affaires	492	12 2
PERU.			PERSIA.		
Chargé d'Affaires	1,780	18 7	For the use of her Majesty's		
CHILI.			Mission	5,017	19 1
Chargé d'Affaires	2,000	0 0			
Total Salaries and Allowances	£154,000	0 0			
Pensions to Diplomatic Officers	20,423	18 6			
	£174,423	18 6			

The sums paid to officers of courts of justice out of the Consolidated Fund were as follow:—

GREAT BRITAIN.

COURT OF CHANCERY.

The Right Hon. Lord Campbell, Lord Chancellor, to June 23, 1861, 2,802*l.* 4*s.*
The Right Hon. Lord Westbury, from June 24, 1861, 3,197*l.* 16*s.*
The Right Hon. Sir James Knight Bruce, Lord Justice, Court of Appeal, 6,000*l.*
The Right Hon. Sir George J. Turner, Lord Justice, Court of Appeal, 6,000*l.*
The Right Hon. Sir John Romilly, Master of the Rolls, 6,000*l.*
The Right Hon. Sir R. T. Kindersley, Vice-Chancellor, 5,000*l.*
The Right Hon. Sir John Stuart, Vice-Chancellor, 5,000*l.*
The Right Hon. Sir W. Page Wood, Vice-Chancellor, 5,000*l.*
P. H. Pepys, Secretary of Presentations, 400*l.*
N. T. Senior, Secretary of Commissions, 400*l.*
P. H. Pepys, for expenses of the office of the Clerk of Presentations, 50*l.*

COURT OF QUEEN'S BENCH.

The Right Hon. Sir Alex. J. C. Cockburn, Lord Chief Justice, 8,000*l.*
Sir William Wightman, puisne judge, 5,000*l.*
Sir Charles Crompton, puisne judge, 5,000*l.*
Sir Hugh Hill, puisne judge, to December 3, 1861, 4,525*l.* 17*s.* 3*d.*
Sir Colin Blackburne, puisne judge, 5,000*l.*
Sir John Mellor, puisne judge, from December 4, 1861, 474*l.* 2*s.* 9*d.*

COURT OF COMMON PLEAS.

The Right Hon. Sir William Erle, Chief Justice, 7,000*l.*
Sir Edward Vaughan Williams, puisne judge, 5,000*l.*
Sir James Shaw Willes, puisne judge, 5,000*l.*
Sir J. B. Byles, puisne judge, 5,000*l.*
Sir Henry Singer Keating, puisne judge, 5,000*l.*

COURT OF EXCHEQUER.

The Right Hon. Sir Frederick Pollock, Lord Chief Baron, 7,000*l.*
Sir Samuel Martin, Lord Chief Baron, 5,000*l.*
Sir George W. W. Bramwell, Lord Chief Baron, 5,000*l.*
Sir William Fry Channell, Lord Chief Baron, 5,000*l.*
Sir James P. Wilde, Lord Chief Baron, 5,000*l.*

COURT OF PROBATE.

The Right Hon. Sir Cresswell Cresswell, Judge, 5,000*l.*

POLICE COURTS.

Salaries of magistrates, police courts of the metropolis, (one at 1,500*l.*, and twenty-two at 1,200*l.* per annum, 27,900*l.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Right Hon. Sir Stephen Lushington, Judge, High Court of Admiralty, 4,000*l.*
The Assistant Judge, Middlesex Court of Sessions, 1,200*l.*
The Preacher, Rolls Chapel, for expenses, 225*l.*
Leonard Edmunds, Clerk of the Patents,* 400*l.*

* In addition to 1500*l.* per annum as reading and committee clerk, House of Lords, and 600*l.* per annum out of the vote for patent office salaries, &c.

Charles Romilly, Clerk of the Crown, 1,200*l*.
 The Right Hon. Sir Laurence Peel, for attending the meetings of the Judicial Committee of Privy Council, 400*l*.
 Salaries to judges of County Courts, 76,800*l*.
 The compensations amounted to 168,168*l*. 7*s*.

COURTS OF JUSTICE IN SCOTLAND.

The Right Hon. Duncan M'Neill, Lord Justice-General, and President, Court of Session, 4,800*l*.
 The Right Hon. John Inglis, Lord Justice Clerk and President of the Second Division, Court of Session, 4 500*l*.
 Charles Baillie, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 James Ivory, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 Alexander Wood, judge, Court of Session, to Jan. 23, 1862, 2,483*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*.
 John Cowan, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 John Marshall, of Curriehill, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 Sir George Deas, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 Hercules J. Robertson, of Benholme, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 Charles Neaves, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 James Craufurd, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 Thomas Mackenzie, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 William Penny, judge, Court of Session, 3,000*l*.
 Robert Macfarlane, judge, Court of Session, from January 29, 1862, 516*l*. 13*s*. 4*d*.
 Sundry Sheriffs of Counties, 18,801*l*. 2*s*. 7*d*.
 Sundry Sheriff Substitutes, 34,470*l*. 11*s*. 10*d*.
 Sheriff Clerks, 5,275*l*. 1*s*. 8*d*.
 Compensation to sundry late officers of the Court of Session, &c., 1,315*l*. 18*s*. 8*d*.
 Compensation to sundry late Town Clerks, 227*l*. 6*s*.

IRELAND.

COURT OF CHANCERY.

The Right Hon. M. Brady, the Lord Chancellor, 8,000*l*.
 The Right Hon. T. B. C. Smith, Master of the Rolls, 3,969*l*. 4*s*. 8*d*.
 The Right Hon. Francis Blackburne, Lord Justice, Court of Appeal, 1,000*l*.
 E. Litton, Master in Ordinary, 2,769*l*. 4*s*. 8*d*.
 W. Brooke, Master in Ordinary, 2,769*l*. 4*s*. 8*d*.
 J. J. Murphy, Master in Ordinary, 2,769*l*. 4*s*. 8*d*.
 Gerald Fitzgibbon, Master in Ordinary, 2,500*l*.
 H. Quinan, Examiner in Chief, 276*l*. 18*s*. 8*d*.
 D. P. Starkey, Accountant-General, 646*l*. 3*s*. 4*d*.
 J. O'Dwyer, Taxing Master, 1,000*l*.
 E. Tandy, Second Taxing Master, 800*l*.
 Thomas Reilly, Third Taxing Master, 800*l*.
 To make good the Deficiency of the Fee Fund, 29,500*l*.

COURT OF QUEEN'S BENCH.

The Right Hon. T. Lefroy, Chief Justice, 5,074*l*. 9*s*. 4*d*.
 The Hon. James O'Brien, Justice, 3,725*l*. 19*s*. 4*d*.
 The Hon. Edward Hayes, Justice, 3,688*l*. 12*s*. 4*d*.
 The Right Hon. J. D. Fitzgerald, Justice, 3,688*l*. 12*s*. 4*d*.
 The Salaries of the Officers and Clerks of the Court, 5,599*l*. 7*s*. 9*d*.

COURT OF COMMON PLEAS.

The Right Hon. J. H. Monahan, Chief Justice, 4,612*l*. 18*s*. 8*d*.
 The Right Hon. Nicholas Ball, Justice, 3,688*l*. 12*s*. 4*d*.
 The Right Hon. William Keogh, Justice, 3,688*l*. 12*s*. 4*d*.
 The Hon. J. Christian, Justice, 3,688*l*. 12*s*. 4*d*.
 The Salaries of the Officers and Clerks of the Court, 4,035*l*.

COURT OF EXCHEQUER.

The Right Hon. David R. Pigott, Chief Baron, 4,612*l*. 18*s*. 8*d*.
 The Right Hon. R. W. Greene, Baron, to February 11, 1861, 379*l*. 2*s*. 2*d*.
 The Hon. Fras. A. Fitzgerald, Baron, 3,688*l*. 12*s*. 4*d*.
 The Hon. Henry G. Hughes, Baron, 3,688*l*. 12*s*. 4*d*.
 The Right Hon. Rickard Deasy, Baron, from February 12, 1861, 3,309*l*. 10*s*. 2*d*.
 The Salaries of the Officers and Clerks of the Court, 4,230*l*.

COURT OF PROBATE.

The Right Hon. Richard Keatinge, Judge, 3,500*l*.

LANDED ESTATES COURT.

The Hon. Mountifort Longfield, Judge, 2,500*l*.
 The Hon. Charles James Hargreave, Judge, 2,500*l*.
 The Hon. William Carey Dobbs, Judge, 2,500*l*.
 Miscellaneous Salaries, Chairmen of Quarter Sessions, &c., 35,750*l*.
 Compensations, 13,714*l*. 18*s*.

The accounts of the Public Debt were as follows:—*Great Britain*.—On the 31st March, 1861, the unredeemed capital was 743,167,182*l.* 10*s.* 8*d.*, and the charge, including interest and annuities, 24,223,993*l.* 18*s.* 0*d.* The debt created or transferred from Ireland between 31st March, 1861, and 31st March, 1862, 1,929,330*l.* 6*s.* 9*d.* stock, with 312,684*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* charge, making a total for Great Britain of 745,096,512*l.* 17*s.* 5*d.* stock, and 24,536,678*l.* 5*s.* 5*d.* charge. During the year there was also reduce or transferred to Ireland, 1,852,602*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.* stock, and 119,481*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.* charge, leaving a balance due to the public creditor on March 31, 1862, of 743,243,910*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.*, with a charge of 24,202,366*l.* 13*s.* 11*d.*, with a charge for management of 214,830*l.* 7*s.* 11*d.*: total, 24,417,197*l.* 1*s.* 10*d.*

Inland.—The unredeemed capital on the 31st March, 1861, was 41,952,426*l.* 16*s.* 11*d.*, charge 1,267,399*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.* During the year the debt was increased by 950,121*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.* stock, and 28,890*l.* 17*s.* 2*d.* charge, making a total of 4,902,548*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.* stock, and 1,296,290*l.* 15*s.* 5*d.* charge. During the same year the debt was reduced by 1,894,120*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.* stock, and 56,823*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.* charge, leaving a balance due to the public creditor on 31st March, 1862, of 41,008,428*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.* stock, and 1,239,467*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.* charge. Summary debt 31st March, 1862, 784,252,338*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.* stock, and 25,656,664*l.* 5*s.* charge, showing a decrease of 867,270*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.* from the 31st March, 1861. The total amount of the national debt on the 31st March, 1862, was as follows:—

GREAT BRITAIN.

New Annuities, at 2½ per cent.	£2,958,451	10	7
Exchequer Bonds, created per 16 Vict. c. 23, at 2½ per cent.	418,300	0	5
Debt due to the Bank of England, at 3 <i>l.</i> per cent.	£11,015,100	0	0
Consolidated Annuities, at 3 <i>l.</i> per cent.	400,232,228	7	4
Reduced Annuities, at 3 <i>l.</i> per cent.	114,405,138	1	9
New Annuities, at 3 <i>l.</i> per cent.	213,543,342	5	8
	739,195,808	14	
New Annuities, at 3½ per cent.	240,746	6	4
New Annuities, at 5 <i>l.</i> per cent.	430,603	15	11
Total, Great Britain	£743,243,910	8	0

IRELAND.

New Annuities, at 2½ per cent.	£	3,080	0	0
Consolidated Annuities, at 3 <i>l.</i> per cent.	6,028,169	18	11	
Reduced Annuities, at 3 <i>l.</i> per cent.	127,896	13	1	
New Annuities, at 3 <i>l.</i> per cent.	32,216,512	5	3	
Debt due to the Bank of Ireland, at 3½ per cent.	2,630,769	4	8	
New Annuities, at 5 <i>l.</i> per cent.	2,000	0	0	
Total, Ireland	£41,008,428	1	11	

Total, United Kingdom, at March 31, 1862, £784,252,338 9 11

Due to the Public Creditor:—

Annual Interest of Unredeemed Debt	£23,528,149	9	0
Annuities per Geo. 4, c. 22, expire April 5, 1867	585,740	0	0
Annuities per 18 Vict. c. 18, and 23 & 24 Vict. c. 109, expire April 5, 1885	190,605	0	0
Annuities for a limited term of years, per 59 Geo. 3, c. 34, 10 Geo. 4, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, expires at various periods, viz.:—			
Granted up to March 31, 1862	£1,750,715	15	0
Deduct, Expired and Unclaimed up to March 31, 1862	1,673,823	0	0
	76,892	12	0

Carried forward £24,381,387 1 0

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[325]

Brought forward	£24,381,387	1	0
Payable at the National Debt Office :—						
Life Annuities, per 48 Geo. 3, c. 142, 10 Geo. 4, c. 24, 3 Will. 4, c. 14, and 16 & 17 Vict. c. 45; viz:—						
Granted up to March 31, 1862	£3,134,526	17	0	
Deduct, Expired and Unclaimed up to March 31, 1862			2,108,819	16	6	
				25,407,094	1	6
Tontine and other Life Annuities, per various Acts, English		11,982	8	9
Ditto Ditto Irish		22,757	6	4
				£25,441,833	17	7
Management	214,830	7	11
Total Annual Charge, exclusive of 119,239 <i>l.</i> 6 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> on Capitals standing in the Names of the Commissioners, on account of Donations and Bequests, and of Unclaimed Stock and Dividends	£25,656,664	5	6

The unfunded debt consisted of 12,917,900*l.* exchequer bills, carrying 387,537*l.* interest and 3,600,000*l.* exchequer bonds, carrying 122,500*l.* interest. The exchequer bonds were made payable in 1862, 1863, 1864, and 1865.

Trade and Navigation.—The official value of imports into the United Kingdom in 1861 was 171,212,549*l.* The official value of exports of British produce 289,355,186*l.*, and of foreign and colonial 50,158,162*l.*: total 339,513,348*l.* During the year 1861 there were built and registered in the British Empire 1,840 vessels, 439,498 tons, and on the 31st December, 1861, there belonged to the British Empire the following number of ships and tonnage:—

	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
England	21,434	3,862,384	173,200
Scotland	3,410	625,427	32,039
Ireland	2,298	247,680	13,960
Isle of Guernsey, Jersey, Isle of Man	896	71,335	5,625
British Plantations	10,866	1,064,763	74,566
	38,904	5,871,589	299,190

In the same year there were entered inwards 29,907 vessels, 7,721,035 tons, British and Irish vessels, and 25,356 vessels, 5,458,554 tons, foreign, and cleared outwards 29,357 vessels, 7,699,497 tons, British and Irish, and 26,699 vessels, 5,716,655 tons, foreign.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

Returns relating to Public Expenditure, not including the Expense of Fortifications. (Mr. Peel.) 30th May, 1862. (29*+*.)

The expenditure for 1860-1 was 72,792,059*l.*; add excess of expenditure for revenue departments (voted in 1861-2), 17,984*l.*: total, 72,810,043*l.* Deduct drawback on wine, charged in account of expenditure instead of being deducted from revenue, 288,218*l.*: 72,521,825*l.*

The expenditure for 1861-2 was 71,116,415*l.*; deduct votes for excesses of former years, viz.—Army (1859-60), 206,629*l.*; Russian War (1857-8), 53,431*l.*; revenue departments (1860-1), 17,984*l.*; 70,838,441*l.*

The estimated public expenditure for 1862-3 was 70,000,000*l.*; deduct—amount included in the army estimates, for the first time, on account of sums repayable out of the revenues of India, 730,000*l.*; also, on account of

increased number of cadets at Sandhurst College, to be balanced by a corresponding payment to the exchequer for contributions to be received from students, 12,700*l.*; amount advanced out of the customs' revenue in 1861-2, for excess of differential dues paid beyond the vote for the year, to be paid to revenue out of a vote to be taken in the miscellaneous civil estimates for 1862-3, 66,304*l.*; additional provision included, for the first time, the estimated expenditure for 1862-3, per Act 24 Vict. c. 3, for payment to the Bank of England of the gross charge for the management of the Public Debt, balanced by a corresponding amount to be paid by the Bank to the credit of the revenue, 190,703*l.* : 69,000,293*l.*

The amount expended on fortifications, under the Act 23 & 24 Vict. c. 109, in the financial years 1860-1 and 1861-2, and amount of annuity created in respect thereof. In 1860-1, 50,000*l.* expended, 3,190*l.* annuity created; in 1861-2, 970,000*l.* expended; 61,559*l.* annuity created; total, 1,020,000*l.* expended, 64,749*l.* annuity created.

DUCHY OF CORNWALL.

Report to Her Majesty the Queen from the Council of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales.

WE, the undersigned, being the councillors of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, in and about the affairs of his Duchy of Cornwall, named in your Majesty's letters patent, beg leave, upon the occasion of his Royal Highness attaining his majority, when the powers delegated to us expire, very humbly to submit for your Majesty's gracious consideration the following report, setting forth the main features of the system of management adopted by our predecessors in office and ourselves subsequently to the accession of your Majesty, and the results that have been produced.

The system of management which had previously prevailed in the administration of the affairs of the Duchy of Cornwall became, upon your Majesty's accession, the subject of anxious inquiry, and your Majesty was graciously pleased, on the 17th of September, 1838, to issue a commission under the great seal, addressed to the Lord Warden of the Stannaries, and several high officers of your Majesty's Government, and others, confiding to them the management of the duchy possessions; and they were moreover directed to inquire into the mode of former management, with the view of considering whether, consistently with the interests of the duchy, and having due regard to the just rights of the several officers employed therein, the expenditure in its several branches might not admit of retrenchment and reduction.

With the view of giving effect to your Majesty's directions in this latter respect, five of the special commissioners named in the above commission, consisting of the late Lord de l'Isle and Dudley, then surveyor-general of the duchy, the Lord Portman, the late Sir Henry Wheatley, then receiver-general of the duchy, the late Sir George Harrison, then the auditor of the duchy, and the late Mr. Alexander Milne, then one of the commissioners of the land revenues of the crown, were, at a meeting held on the 6th of February, 1839, nominated as a committee to consider and report their opinion to the special commissioners as to the future management of the property, having reference to the income and the expenditure incurred.

At a meeting of the special commissioners, held on the 23rd of April in the same year, a report from the Lord Portman, one of the members of the committee, was submitted and discussed. This report appears to have been the foundation of the changes which subsequently took place in the administration of the affairs of the duchy; but the commissioners having declined to adopt the suggestions made in it, your Majesty was graciously pleased, on the seventh of May in the same year, to issue a warrant under your royal sign manual, and countersigned by three of the Lords Commissioners of your Majesty's Treasury, authorizing the late Lord de l'Isle and Dudley, the Lord Portman, the Earl of Lonsdale, then Viscount Lowther, the Lord Cranworth, then Sir Robert Monsey Rolfe, your Majesty's solicitor-general, and Mr. Alexander Milne, being also five of the special commissioners named in 1838, "to institute an examination and inquiry into the system of managing, leasing, or otherwise disposing of the possessions of the duchy, and to report to your Majesty thereon, with a view to remedy any inconveniences or abuses which might be found to exist therein; to the reduction of any unnecessary charges or expenses incident thereto; and to the establishment of such new rules or regulations as might be productive of benefit to the duchy, and to the tenants thereof, as well as to the security of the revenues of the duchy."

The commissioners thus authorized had the honour, in the month of July, 1839, of submitting to your Majesty their report, which, in all main points, was identical with the Lord Portman's report, and from which it appeared—That under former management customs had been abandoned, courts had been lost, fees and heriots had not been duly received, boundaries had become matters of doubt, and the adverse claims of cutting timber and fuel and of pasturage, had been permitted to grow into habits if not into rights; that the property, previously to your Majesty's accession, had usually been granted on leases for lives or in reversion, and that the greater portions of the rents having been commuted by fines, the income then realized afforded no just criterion for estimating the true and fair annual value of the duchy; that the ministerial officers of the duchy, with the exception of the Lord Warden, derived a considerable portion of their emoluments from fees; that the property was then managed by an executive board, acting under the advice and direction of the special commissioners appointed by your Majesty's commission of the 17th September, 1838; that the officers who formed the executive board were—the lord warden, the receiver-general, the auditor, the surveyor-general, and the attorney-general—all of whom were members of the special commission; that the annual income of the duchy derived from rents was at that time 6211*l.* 18*s.* 2*d.*, with a prospective increase of 6012*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* secured by leases which had been then granted, but which were not in full operation, making the prospective annual rental (exclusive of other sources of revenue) 12,224*l.*; that the income of the duchy had been theretofore derived principally from fines received on the renewal of leases, which, in the six years from Michaelmas 1823 to Michaelmas 1829, had amounted to 70,794*l.*, showing an average of 11,799*l.* a year, and in the following six years to 112,364*l.*, showing an average of 18,727*l.*; the average gross annual income, including fines, being, during the former period 36,287*l.*, and during the latter 42,262*l.*; that the expenditure from 1823 to 1829 averaged 10,265*l.* a year, and for the next six years 14,884*l.*, being for the former period about 30 per cent. on the gross income, and for the latter more than 35 (in the report

stated 37) per cent., and that this was exclusive of the fees received by the officers of the establishment; that the salaries and emoluments received by the officers on the establishment in London averaged during the former period 669*l.*, and during the latter 966*l.* The commissioners state their opinion to be—That the constitution of the office, as it then existed, and the system of management pursued, was not adapted for maintaining an efficient control over the receipts and expenditure, or for promoting the general improvement of the estates; that the practice which had previously prevailed of granting leases on lives and in reversion, was on every account objectionable; and that the manner of ascertaining the value of the property, and the care taken of it by the lessees, was imperfect. They then proceeded to offer various suggestions for the future administration and management of the duchy possessions. These were principally as follows:—First, certain alterations in the appointment and functions of the ministerial officers of the duchy; secondly, the appointment under the surveyor-general of local agents who would permanently reside upon and superintend the management of the property, and would collect the revenues arising within their respective districts; thirdly, the discontinuance of grants for lives or otherwise than for terms of years certain; fourthly, the granting of leases for terms certain upon the surrender of existing grants for lives, with an adequate allowance for the value of the existing interests, where the parties were willing to concur in such an arrangement; fifthly, the abandonment of the previous practice of taking fines upon the granting of leases, except to a very limited extent; and sixthly, the immediate abolition of all fees and perquisites received by officers of the duchy. The commissioners also recommend that, with a view to consolidation, and in order to effect a further diminution in the expenses of management, a bill should be submitted to Parliament empowering the officers of the duchy to sell or exchange detached property, and to make any other alterations in the management which could only be adopted under the authority of the legislature.

Subsequently to this report the management of the duchy possessions was confided by your Majesty, under letters patent dated in August 1840, to the commissioners of the land revenues of the Crown under the superintendence and control of the council or special commissioners, and subject to certain rules which were prescribed by your Majesty for regulating the future dealings with the property, including the important restrictions recommended in the above report, that grants for lives or otherwise than for terms of years certain should be discontinued, and that the former practice of taking fines upon the granting of leases should be abandoned, a small and limited portion of the income only being allowed to be so commuted.

It may be convenient here to state that from 1783 to June 26th, 1830, when the late Prince of Wales (King George IV.) was in possession of the duchy, the fines taken upon the renewal of leases, &c., amounted to about 370,000*l.*; and from the latter period to June 20th, 1837, when King William IV. was in possession of the duchy, these fines amounted to 171,343*l.* 10*s.* Both these amounts passed to the privy purse of the Duke of Cornwall, or of the Sovereign, and tended materially to diminish the income derivable from the property. The rules under which the council have acted appear to have established the income of the estates upon a sound system, and at the same time have enabled your Majesty, by the

investment of surplus revenue from time to time, to provide a large sum for the privy purse of the Prince of Wales.

Shortly after the birth of his Royal Highness, your Majesty was graciously pleased to appoint the Prince of Wales' Council, who, with the aid and assistance of the Commissioners of Woods, administered the affairs of the duchy. His Royal Highness the Prince Consort presided over the council, and continued to watch over the conduct of the business. For twenty years we continued to enjoy the infinite advantage of his Royal Highness's superintendence of the varied business which came before us; and although we are conscious that, in addressing your Majesty, it is unnecessary to allude to the deep interest which his Royal Highness took in all that related to an improved administration of the duchy possessions, we should not do justice to our own feelings if we did not humbly ask leave to record on this occasion our sense of the irreparable loss which we sustained by his death. To his just mind and clear judgment, his quick perception of what is right, his singular discretion, his remarkable aptitude for the conduct of affairs, we never looked in vain for guidance and advice on any occasion of difficulty. The soundness of his opinions in all our deliberations was rendered more apparent by the toleration with which he listened and was always ready to defer to those of others. He never lost sight of the improvement of the condition of the tenant and the labourer, whilst anxiously seeking to restore the property of the duchy to a state of prosperity; and to him, we may truly say, it is mainly due that the Prince of Wales will now enter into possession of an estate greatly increased in value, and free from nearly all the disputes with neighbouring proprietors and others which at one time prevailed.

In the year 1845 the necessity of referring to the Commissioners of Woods being found to occasion inconvenience, their assistance ceased, and the sole management and responsibility from that time devolved upon the council, the Chief Commissioner of Woods, however, being always a member thereof until the year 1850, since which time one of the Lords of the Treasury, on being appointed keeper of the privy seal of his Royal Highness, has supplied the place of the Chief Commissioner of Woods. The principles of management, however, have continued uniformly the same.

By an Act of Parliament passed in 1838, which was introduced under the sanction of your Majesty's Government, the duties payable upon the coinage of tin raised in Cornwall and Devon (which from the earliest period had formed an important part of the revenues of the Dukes of Cornwall, but which, as stated in the preamble of the Act, it was "expedient and for the benefit of trade" "should cease") were abolished, and in lieu of them an annual sum of 16,216*l.* 15*s.*, being the average net amount received in respect of these duties during ten years immediately preceding, was made payable, as part of the fixed revenue of the duchy, out of the consolidated fund of the United Kingdom.

In the same year, in accordance with the previous practice on each devolution of the Duchy of Cornwall, an Act authorizing the usual grants by lease or copy of court roll of the duchy possessions was passed, and by this Act an account of the receipts and disbursements of the duchy was ordered to be annually submitted to the lords commissioners of your Majesty's Treasury, with a view to its being presented to Parliament, which had not been previously done. And by an Act passed in the session of Parliament

held next after the birth of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, similar powers of leasing and granting by copy of court roll were given to the Prince, to be exercised during the minority of his Royal Highness under the direction of your Majesty.

Although a change in the mode of dealing with the duchy property was in contemplation at the periods when these leasing Acts were passed, it was not considered advisable to make any alteration in the powers which had been previously conferred by the legislature on successive owners of the duchy in this respect. The power therefore remained, and, unless altered by the authority of the Legislature, will continue to exist during his Royal Highness's tenure of the duchy, to make grants either in possession or reversion, dependent upon lives, and upon which fines may be taken and the revenues anticipated.

In the year 1844, after very anxious consideration, and acting upon the advice of the law officers of the crown and duchy, as well as of other lawyers of the highest eminence, the council authorized the introduction into Parliament of a bill for enfranchising the estates of the conventional tenants within what are called the assessionable manors of the duchy in Cornwall. These estates had been previously held under grants, which were septennially renewed, and of which the tenants claimed, from custom and immemorial usage, a right of perpetual renewal. This opportunity was taken of ascertaining, through commissioners appointed by Parliament, and of defining and settling, under legislative authority, the boundaries of these estates, and the right of entry upon them for mineral workings, and other questions of great importance as regards the mineral property of the duchy, which, from lapse of time and other circumstances, had become involved in such obscurity as prevented the full development of this source of duchy revenue, and at the same time caused great inconvenience to the holders of adjacent property. The cost of this inquiry was borne by the duchy and the tenants in certain specified proportions. The duchy proportion, amounting to 26,272*l.*, was paid from the duchy capital, without any expense to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales individually, further than the loss of the interest upon the amount so expended. The result has been very beneficial in conducting to the development of the mineral property of the duchy in Cornwall. The average annual receipts for the ten years immediately succeeding the birth of his Royal Highness were under 3000*l.*; whilst the annual average of the succeeding ten years, dating from the time when the effects of the settlement of the doubtful questions would come into operation, has amounted to upwards of 7000*l.* Advantage was also taken of this opportunity to fulfil a promise given by his late Majesty King William the Fourth, for quieting titles within the county of Cornwall after sixty years' possession, by placing the possessions of the duchy in that county in the same position with regard to the questioning of the subject's title as the possessions of the Crown were under what is called "the Nullum Tempus Act," passed in the ninth year of the reign of his Majesty King George the Third. This limitation was then confined to the county of Cornwall, but it has since, by an Act to which your Majesty's royal assent was given on the 23rd of July, 1860, been extended to the possessions of the duchy generally.

In the year 1844 another Act received the sanction of the Legislature, authorizing, during the minority of his Royal Highness, the alienation of lands forming part of the possessions of the duchy, and the investment of the money arising therefrom in the purchase of other lands, to be annexed

to the duchy, in the same manner as the original possessions. This Act also authorized the Duke of Cornwall for the time being to make free grants to a limited extent of land for ecclesiastical and educational purposes, and conferred upon the Duke other powers connected with the management of the estates, and also contained provisions for carrying into effect certain changes which were then in contemplation in the constitution of the principal ministerial officers of the duchy, and which have been to some extent acted upon during the minority of his Royal Highness. Under the provisions of this Act the council have sanctioned sales and enfranchisements of portions of the duchy possessions, which have realized in the whole a sum of about 300,000*l.*; of which upwards of 40,000*l.* has arisen from sales made to railway and other public companies, including 28,000*l.* for the lord's interest in copyhold property within the manor of Kennington sold to the London and South-western and the Charing Cross Railway Companies. Other enfranchisements of copyhold property, effected by the copyholders themselves, have produced 26,038*l.*, in addition to the 28,000*l.*, making a total of 54,038*l.* within this manor alone.

After detailing certain sales, such as of the Berkhamstead estate, of the manor and common of Treverbyn, and of Langton Herring estates, the council stated the principles which have guided them in sanctioning sales, as follows:—

These sales have for the most part been confined to outlying and detached portions of the duchy property which were inconveniently situated for management; but the council, as a general rule, have refrained from sanctioning the sales of reversionary interests where the estates were subject to beneficial grants which would have rendered a sale prejudicial to the inheritance of the duchy; the general existence of these grants has, in fact, precluded the council from deriving the full benefit of the aid which was contemplated by Parliament with a view to the consolidation of the duchy property, and from carrying into effect sales which, had the estates been in possession, might probably have been advantageously adopted. It may form a proper subject of consideration with his Royal Highness and his future advisers, whether it may not be desirable again to seek the aid of Parliament for giving effect to the system which was originally contemplated, but which the circumstances of the case have prevented being more than very partially carried out. In some special cases, and particularly with reference to house property at Shepton Mallet, the council have considered it desirable to sanction the sales of reversionary interests. The result of this, as regards the town of Shepton Mallet, has been very beneficial, and tended very much to its improvement, and it may deserve consideration whether, in the event of the requisite authority of Parliament being obtained, it may not be desirable to continue sales of this nature in this town, and also at Mere, in both of which places the duchy has a large extent of house property of an inferior class, and for the repair of which, on the expiration of the existing grants, a large outlay would be required. By the course pursued this outlay by the duchy has been rendered unnecessary, and the purchasers acquiring a permanent interest in their properties, have been induced themselves to carry out repairs and improvements to an extent which in Shepton Mallet has quite altered the appearance and character of the town, and will no doubt tend materially to increase the value of the duchy property in that locality.

In order to avoid as far as practicable the injury which these reversionary

sales would occasion to the inheritance of the duchy, the council have caused the purchase moneys, when received, to be invested in stock in reduced Three per Cent. Annuities, the dividends upon which have not been dealt with as forming part of the duchy revenues, but have been from time to time accumulated by reinvestment in the same stock, so as to form part of the capital. The full value of the property which has been the subject of these sales, if it had been in possession, may be taken at 36,000*l.*, assuming that it had come into possession in good repair; the prices realized have amounted to 19,338*l.* 5*s.* This amount has been invested in the purchase of 20,537*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.* Reduced Three per Cent. Annuities, which, by means of the accumulation, has been increased to 26,663*l.* 5*s.* 11*d.* of that stock. It has not been proposed to continue this accumulation beyond the period of his Royal Highness attaining his majority; but this will be a subject for the decision of his Royal Highness and his future advisers.

The council then detailed the purchases to have consisted of the toll tin lease, lease of the manor of Shepton Mallet, and of the property of Hermitage.

With these exceptions the purchases which have been effected by the council out of the capital of the duchy funds have been of lands of inheritance, which have been permanently annexed to the duchy, and have become part of its inalienable possessions. These purchases have been chiefly of lands intermixed with or adjoining the duchy estates; and although it has been necessary in some instances to give apparently high prices for them, it is believed that in these cases the additional value thereby given to the adjoining duchy estates has fully justified the prices at which the purchases have been made.

The council have also, under the powers of this Act, sanctioned certain grants for ecclesiastical and educational purposes in connection with the duchy estates.

We do not propose on this occasion to trouble your Majesty with the details of the revenue and expenditure of the duchy during each year since the birth of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, as these have been fully stated in the accounts which, in accordance with the requirements of the Act of Parliament passed in the second year of your Majesty's reign, we have caused to be submitted annually to the lords commissioners of your Majesty's treasury, with a view to their being presented to Parliament as provided for by that Act; but it may be stated that after payment of the charges imposed by Act of Parliament upon the revenues, the superannuation allowances to retired officers, charitable donations, and the expenses of management, we have, up to the close of the year 1861, expended a sum of 41,598*l.* 9*s.* 3*d.* in the repair and erection of farm buildings and cottages, and in drainage and other permanent improvements upon the property, and after providing for the payments which, under your Majesty's royal sanction, have been annually made to the treasurer of his Royal Highness, we have, pursuant to your Majesty's directions in this behalf, paid over to the Prince's trustees, for investment and accumulation as surplus revenue, from time to time, such money as was not required to be otherwise appropriated, amounting in the whole to a sum of 386,500*l.*, which, with the accumulations, has produced, as we are informed, the following amounts in the Government funds, viz.:—In Consolidated Three per Cent. Annuities, 282,969*l.* 8*s.* 11*d.*, and in Reduced Three per Cent. Annuities, 289,106*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.*, making together a sum of 572,075*l.* 13*s.* of stock in those funds, and there is at the

present time a balance in the bankers' hands of 29,646*l.* 17*s.* 8*d.*, arising principally from rents now in course of collection. There is also a sum of 12,000*l.* Reduced Three per Cent. Annuities derived from a source hereinafter referred to, which the council have directed to be transferred to the Prince of Wales's trustees. In the year ending at Michaelmas 1838, being the first account for an entire year after your Majesty's accession, the gross revenue of the Duchy of Cornwall was 24,885*l.*, no part of which arose from fines on renewals which had then been abolished. The expenditure during this period was for the expenses of management 11,111*l.*, and for other outgoings 2,238*l.*, making together, 13,349*l.*, leaving a clear revenue of 11,536*l.* The revenue has since gradually and steadily increased, although (except in the case of leases of house property within the manor of Kennington), the income formerly derived from fines on renewals of leases has been entirely abandoned. The gross revenue for the year ending on the 31st December, 1861, (which does not include the rental of the estates bought with the purchase money of the Berkhamsted property,) was 60,735*l.*; the expenditure during this period being for the expense of management 6,865*l.*; and for other outgoings 7,254*l.*, making together 14,119*l.*, leaving a clear revenue of 46,616*l.*

During the former of these periods the duchy mines in Cornwall were subject to five leases, on the granting of which fines had been taken, and the sum of 174*l.* entered in the account as mineral revenue, was made up of the reserved rents 50*l.*, and of the proceeds from granite and China clay works 124*l.* The lessees under these grants were not themselves generally the parties working the mines, but as such lessees they received the royalties from the adventurers. In the year 1840 these leases, with the exception of the tin grant, fell into hand, since which time the grants have been made direct from the duchy to the adventurers, and the full royalties received. In 1841 the revenue from this source was little more than nominal, but under the new arrangement it has largely increased, as appears from the averages before stated.

It may be right here to notice a subject which involved rather a large expenditure from the revenues of the duchy, occasioned by the abandonment of an important mine work within the manor of Tywarnhaile in Cornwall, which had been carried on for a considerable period under the name of the United Hills, afterwards called the Tywarnhaile mines, and had yielded a considerable income to the duchy, averaging upwards of 1,000*l.* a year. The adventurers having in 1847 resolved to discontinue the workings, it was represented to the council that unless they were continued, not only would the property in that and the adjoining mines, from the influx of water and other causes, be entirely lost, but a large body of miners would be suddenly thrown out of employment, and, with their families, exposed to great privation; as it was not found practicable at the time to obtain parties willing to prosecute the adventure, the council determined, with the view of saving the property from destruction, to continue the workings at the expense of the duchy for a time, in the hope that some parties would ultimately be found to take up the concern, which was represented as being one from which large returns might be anticipated. This was done for a period of about two years, and the amount expended by the council in the purchase of the machinery from the former adventurers and in carrying on the works was 48,101*l.* 7*s.* 2*d.*, the amount realized from the sale of ore amounting only to 19,313*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.*, showing

a loss of 28,787*l.* 16*s.* 9*d.* In the year 1849 a company of adventurers was formed, who took a lease of the mine for a term of twenty-one years, for which they paid to the duchy, including the value of stores then on the mine, the sum of 16,797*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.*, thereby reducing the loss to 11,990*l.* 6*s.* 11*d.* This loss may be considered to have been further reduced by the amount of dues, about 2,000*l.*, received from the new lessees, who carried on the adventure with great spirit, but from the fall in the price of copper and other circumstances, over which the adventurers had no control, they found themselves in the year 1852 obliged to abandon the undertaking. The mine has now again been let, but the prospect of any considerable returns from it is extremely uncertain.

It may be right here also to notice the application in 1854 of a portion of the capital funds of the duchy for providing improved dwellings for the poorer classes within the manor of Kennington, in the parish of Lambeth, by the erection of what are called the model lodging houses, in High Street, Vauxhall: the total amount expended in the purchase of the site, and the erection of the buildings, was about 16,000*l.*; and although up to the present time no adequate return for the capital expended has been received, the council have the satisfaction of knowing that fifty-four comfortable residences have been provided of a very substantial and lasting character. In consequence of the want of tenants it was considered expedient in 1859 to sanction a considerable reduction in the rents, which has resulted in most of the dwellings being now occupied, but the net annual revenue from them does not at present much exceed 300*l.*

In the year 1853 an application was made by the Government for possession of the apartments in Somerset House, which, under the provisions of an Act of Parliament passed in the 15th year of the reign of his Majesty King George the Third, had been appropriated for the Duchy of Cornwall. The officers of the Government were informed that, if equally good accommodation were secured for the duchy elsewhere, the council would not raise any objection to the proposed change. After some negotiation, it was agreed that the site of the present offices at Buckingham Gate should be purchased by the Government and vested in your Majesty, in trust, for the use of the duchy, and that the Government should erect suitable offices upon this site at their own expense, in the first instance, but subject to an arrangement, that if the value of the new buildings, when completed, should exceed the value of the old office in Somerset House, the duchy should repay to the officers of the Crown one half of such excess. The site having been purchased and vested in your Majesty, the new offices were completed and possession taken of them by the officers of the duchy in the year 1857. The surveyors of the duchy and of the Government have been instructed to make the necessary valuation, but their report has not yet been received. The removal occasioned a considerable expenditure in purchasing new fittings and furniture and other accommodation beyond what the Government were required to provide. It was estimated that the cost of this would not exceed 3300*l.*, of which the sum of 1800*l.* was paid from the revenues of his Royal Highness, and the residue, 1500*l.*, was directed to be paid from the Fee Fund Account hereinafter referred to. Of the latter amount the sum of 558*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* only has up to the present time been expended; but there are still some additional fittings required, which will absorb a considerable portion of the balance. Irrespective of this, the whole cost of removal and the incidental expenses were borne by

the Government, and the amount, if any, which may have to be ultimately paid to the Government in respect of the excess in value of the present offices will, we apprehend, be properly chargeable to the capital account of the duchy. The ordinary expenses of management, exclusive of law charges, have amounted on an average during the last five years to about 6500*l.* annually, which we do not consider unreasonable, having regard to the peculiar nature and the scattered position of the property. The council have, as a general rule, and except in some few special cases, considered it their duty to advise your Majesty to sanction donations, rather than annual grants or subscriptions, out of the duchy funds, in aid of local charities, thinking it desirable that his Royal Highness should be left free to exercise his own discretion in matters of this nature after the period when the authority of the council ceased.

With regard to the expenditure in new buildings, drainage, and other permanent improvements, the amount would have been much greater but for the difficulty before referred to in the consolidation of the estates into farms of a convenient size. We have caused an approximate estimate to be formed of the outlay which will be required for these purposes. The estimate amounts to about 125,000*l.* Of this sum 25,000*l.* will have to be expended before any very long period has elapsed, and the remaining sum of about 100,000*l.* from time to time as the estates fall into hand. By this expenditure, however, not only will an increased permanent value be given to the estates, but an immediate remunerative return will be obtained upon the capital proposed to be thus invested. In consequence of the uncertainty of the life tenure upon which the estates are held, it is not practicable to state the precise period within which this outlay will have to be made; but, inasmuch as, if circumstances had permitted, the amount would have been deducted, when required, from the surplus revenues paid over to the trustees of his Royal Highness, we venture humbly to suggest the expediency of provision being made for the payment of at least some portion of this amount from the accumulated savings amassed. We fear, otherwise, that the expenditure for these purposes, necessary to secure an improved system of cultivation, may in some years, at all events, be of such an amount as inconveniently to interfere with the revenues accruing to his Royal Highness.

It has been the anxious desire of the council to avoid involving his Royal Highness in legal proceedings, and they have in all cases where it appeared practicable to do so without material prejudice to the duchy interests, made disputed questions the subject of compromise or other mode of settlement, rather than have recourse to law. Questions of difficulty have arisen, and in some cases it has been found absolutely necessary to institute legal proceedings for the investigation and settlement of the rights of the duchy, which, from lapse of time and other circumstances, had become involved in much obscurity. As an instance of this, may be mentioned the case of the tolls in the port of King's Lynn, a proportion of which tolls had been annexed to the duchy in the reign of Edward the Third. Leases of these had for centuries been granted by successive renewals to the Corporation of Lynn at a nominal rent of 5*l.* The descriptions in these leases were so vague that it became a matter of extreme difficulty to ascertain the nature and extent of the duchy rights. On the expiration of the duchy lease in 1845 the corporation applied for the renewal of the grant, and on being asked for a return, which they were bound by the terms of their holding to

furnish, of the receipts from the duchy proportion of the tolls, they excluded by far the larger portion of the revenues of the port, contending that the duchy right extended only to some petty tolls of small amount, estimated at about 30*l.* a year, and that all the larger and more important tolls belonged to them, under title which they derived independently of the duchy. Under these circumstances it was considered expedient that proceedings in Chancery should be taken against the corporation, which having been commenced, and for some time pending, a settlement was effected through the aid of the Prince's attorney-general, in which the rights of the duchy were admitted to the fullest extent, and a lease was afterwards granted to the corporation, on the recommendation of the attorney-general, reserving an annual rent to the duchy of 200*l.*

After detailing certain other cases, the report gives the average annual charges for law expenses for a series of years, commencing with the year 1823, as follows:—For each year during the seven years ending with 1830, 1890*l.*; this amount included the cost of the important trial of Roe and Brenton, which established the duchy right to the minerals within the conventional lands of the duchy in Cornwall. The like during the next seven years ending with 1837, 6705*l.*; this amount included the cost of the preparation of numerous leases upon the Kennington demesnes. The like during the next seven years ending with 1844, 1037*l.* The like during the next seven years ending with 1851, 788*l.* The like during the next seven years ending with 1858, 885*l.*; this amount included the cost of the proceedings in the Lynn toll-booth and Cornwall under sea mineral cases. The like during the next three years ending with 1861, 352*l.* In the year 1849 it was found that the receiver-general's accounts had fallen into a state which rendered it necessary, with a view to the satisfactory collection of the revenue, that some important changes should be made, and after full consideration it was considered expedient that the offices of both the receiver-general and the surveyor-general should then be abolished, and the late Sir Henry Wheatley, the receiver-general, and the late Lord De l'Isle and Dudley, the surveyor-general, with your Majesty's approval, retired upon their full salaries, amounting together to 1850*l.* a year.

The duties attaching to the office of surveyor-general were then entrusted, under the provisions of the Act of 1844, to the secretary of the council, and the collection of the revenues was, in accordance with the recommendations of the special commissioners, entrusted partly to the local agents and partly to an officer in the establishment in London, who was appointed, also under the provisions of the Act of 1844, to discharge the duties, not otherwise provided for, attaching to the office of receiver-general, including the preparation of the annual account. In 1850 the present auditor, at that time the deputy paymaster-general, and now an officer of your Majesty's Treasury, was appointed, under whose superintendence the accounts have since been kept, as we believe, in a most perfect and satisfactory manner. These changes were effected without any material increase of expense to the duchy, and by the falling in of the pensions of the late receiver and surveyor-general the expense has, in fact, been reduced. The collection of the mineral revenue was at this time entrusted to a local officer resident in Cornwall, but in the year 1856 a further change was deemed necessary, and this service has since been efficiently performed by an officer in the establishment in London. The collection of this portion of the duchy revenues is, from the fluctuating nature of the property, attended with considerable

difficulty, and requires the most prompt and vigilant attention in order to prevent loss, which, if the revenue is allowed to get into arrear, is almost certain to be incurred. The arrears at the commencement of the year 1856, when the change was made, had amounted to upwards of 1000*l.*, but under the new arrangement this sum has been for the most part recovered, and the arrears since have not, on an average, amounted to more than 50*l.* at the end of each year, being, in fact, merely nominal, and such as in the collection of an uncertain revenue, accruing from day to day, it is not practicable to avoid on making up the account at any particular period. Upon the whole, the council are able to state their opinion that both the collection of the revenues and the keeping of the accounts are now placed upon a most satisfactory footing.

In consequence of a change which took place in the duchy establishment in 1861, occasioned by the retirement of the secretary of the council, who had discharged, with great zeal and ability, the duties attached to the office of surveyor-general, as well as those of the other offices which he held, it became necessary to consider whether or not the previous arrangement under which these duties were discharged by an officer in the establishment in London, should be continued, which upon the whole was not thought advisable, but it was recommended that an officer, to be called "inspector of surface property," distinct from the duchy establishment in London, should be appointed. The duties attached to this office are of such importance in the management of the duchy property, that the council, having regard to the near approach of the period when his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales would probably himself take an interest in the selection, forbore to recommend your Majesty to make any permanent appointment to this office, for the temporary discharge of the duties of which provision has, with your Majesty's sanction, been made. At the same time the separate duties of the secretary of the council were confided to an officer of long standing and experience in the service of the duchy, who, since his appointment, has discharged them to the entire satisfaction of the council.

In the alterations which took place on this occasion, it was found necessary, in order to meet the provisions of several Acts of Parliament, that there should be some officer authorized to discharge certain duties attaching to the office of receiver-general, and to provide for this your Majesty was pleased, upon the recommendation of the council, to confer that office upon the treasurer of the Prince's household as an honorary appointment to which no salary is attached.

In the spring of the present year it became apparent to the council that upon his Royal Highness attaining his majority, when, as before mentioned, the powers of the council under the Sales and Purchases Act of 1844 would cease, there would be various negotiations in progress under that Act which it would not be practicable to carry into complete effect by the particular day when the powers would expire. They therefore determined upon applying to Parliament for such powers as would obviate any difficulty in that respect. The council on this occasion were enabled, through the kindness of the late chancellor of his Royal Highness, to obtain his lordship's advice as to the course which it would be proper to pursue with reference to their proposed application to Parliament, and a bill was prepared in accordance with the opinion of Lord Kingsdown, which, having passed through both houses of Parliament without any objection or question being raised upon it, received your Majesty's royal assent on the 29th of July, 1862.

By this Act the Prince of Wales is authorized, on attaining his majority, to direct the completion of all arrangements commenced by the council on behalf of his Royal Highness during his minority, for which purpose the powers of the Sales and Purchases Act of 1844 are vested in his Royal Highness, and may be exercised either by him or by such persons as he may depute to act therein on his behalf.

In an early part of our report we have referred to the existence of powers under the Leasing Act of 1842, which was passed shortly after the birth of the Prince of Wales, enabling his Royal Highness to make grants, either in possession or reversion, upon which fines might be taken and the revenues anticipated as his predecessors in the duchy had been enabled to do, and thus to create anew the evils which the instructions issued by your Majesty to the council were intended to avert. The operation of these instructions will cease with the existence of the council, and we deem it our duty before closing this report very respectfully to tender our advice to your Majesty and to his Royal Highness that these objectionable powers should be abandoned. For this purpose we beg leave to submit that some legislative provision should be made, and we think it may at the same time be desirable that certain powers of selling and reinvesting the proceeds, exchanging, enfranchising, making grants by way of compromise of claims, and other similar powers of administration, to be exercised under the sanction of the Treasury as heretofore, should be conferred on the owner of the duchy for the time being.

In thus closing our report upon the present state and future prospects of the duchy of Cornwall, and with it our labours as the council appointed by your Majesty, we beg leave to express our gratitude to your Majesty for the confidence which has been so graciously and uniformly reposed in us. We earnestly hope that the results of our exertions may be found to have placed the administration of the affairs of the duchy on such a basis as to fulfil alike the intentions of the royal founder and of your Majesty, and to promote the permanent interests of the Prince of Wales and of his successors in the duchy possessions.

The report was signed by the Duke of Newcastle, warden of the Stannaries; William Dunbar, keeper of the privy seal; W. J. Alexander, attorney-general; C. B. Phipps, receiver-general and treasurer; and Earl Portman.

The capital account of the Duchy of Cornwall from the passing of the Act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 65 to 8th November, 1862, showed the following state:—

The debtor side or the receipts, were as follows:—To balance on the 6th August, 1844, being the date of the passing of the Act, viz.:—Cash at the Bank of England, 190*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.*; sterling value of Stock in 3 per Cent. Consols and 3 per Cent. Reduced Annuities, 20,140*l.* To sales of estates, viz.:—Sale of lands to railway and other companies, exclusive of copyhold property in Kennington, from 1846 to 1861, 14,200*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*; enfranchisement of copyhold property in Kennington, from 1847 to 1862, 54,038*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*; sale of coinage hall premises at Truro in 1848, 1375*l.*; sale of property at Shepton Mallet to various parties, from 1848 to 1861, 6752*l.* 14*s.* 9*d.*; sale of portions of the foreshores of the water of Tamar to various parties, from 1849 to 1861, 8944*l.* 14*s.* 10*d.*; sale of lands in Stoke Climsland to the Duke of Bedford, in 1850, 7628*l.* 10*s.* 7*d.*; sale of dispersed lands in the county of Lincoln to various parties, from 1850 to 1858, 7985*l.* 2*s.* 10*d.*; sale of lands in Treverbyn to various parties, from 1850 to 1859, including

the duchy moiety of the manor and waste, sold to Mr. Ivimey for 18,000*l.* less 487*l.* credited to toll tin account, 20,296*l.*; sale of Coinage Hall premises at Helston, in 1851, 376*l.*; sale of Northolt Farm, in Dorset, to the Earl of Ilchester, in 1853, 2695*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*; sale of houses in Bradninch Place, Exeter, to Mr. Gard, in 1854-5, 1860*l.*; sale of the manor of Langton Herring, including duchy moiety of advowson, in 1855, 6277*l.* 10*s.*; sale of the manor of Berkhamsted to the guardians of Earl Brownlow, in 1862, 144,540*l.*; sale of mineral rights in Penlyne to Mr. Robartes, in 1862, 1000*l.*; sale of portions of the foreshores and estuaries of Cornwall to various parties, from 1854 to 1862, 4643*l.* 11*s.* 7*d.*; various small sales of detached and waste lands, quit rents, &c., effected during the time of this account, 11,755*l.* 15*s.* 3*d.*; to dividends and profits arising from purchase moneys received from estates in which the duchy had at the time of the sale a reversionary interest only, 5781*l.* 6*s.* 11*d.*; to fines on grants of mines, 450*l.*; to increase arising from fluctuation in the value of stock, 256*l.* 16*s.* 9*d.*; total, 321,277*l.* 13*s.* 11*d.*

The creditor side or payments, were as follows:—By purchase of estates, viz.:—Purchase of toll tin lease, including expenses, in 1845, 24,015*l.* 15*s.* 1*d.*; less repaid up to 1862, 15,015*l.* 15*s.* 1*d.*; purchase of lease of the manor of Shepton Mallet, including expenses, in 1846, 4245*l.*; purchase of other property in Shepton Mallet, in 1846, 166*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.*; purchase of Frankham Farm, in the manor of Rhyme, Dorset, in 1852, 4952*l.*; purchase of Brimpts and other estates at Dartmoor, from 1852 to 1862, 12,684*l.*; purchase of lands at Hermitage, Dorset, in 1853, 3464*l.* 10*s.* 1*d.*; purchase of site of model lodging-houses at Kennington in 1854, 4000*l.*; cost of erecting the same in 1855 and 1856, 11,885*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.*; market price of stock paid for redemption of land tax on the same in 1855, 157*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.*; purchase of lands at West Harptree, in 1854 to 1860, 1425*l.*; purchase of the copyhold interest in property at Kennington in 1855, 2100*l.*; purchase of lands at Fordington, from 1858 to 1861, 4103*l.* 13*s.* 2*d.*; purchase of lands at Laverton, from 1860 to 1862, 5762*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*; purchase of the manor of Ile Brewers, in the county of Somerset, in 1862, 27,600*l.*; purchase of other lands at Ile Brewers and Ile Abbots, in Somerset, in 1862, 17,400*l.*; purchase of lands intermixed with Burton Farm, Mere, in 1862, 5250*l.*; purchase of the Crown estate of Rialton, adjoining the duchy manor of Tregamere, in the county of Cornwall, in 1862, 68,420*l.*; purchase of the Crown estate of Gillingham, in the county of Dorset, adjoining the duchy manor of Mere, in 1862, 29,500*l.*; various small purchases effected during the time of this account, 710*l.* 1*s.* 10*d.*; by expenses attending the purchase and sale of estates, 2,114*l.* 18*s.* 8*d.*; by proportion paid by the Duchy of Cornwall of the expenses attending the assessionable manors commission in 1844-5, 26,272*l.* 0*s.* 4*d.*; by amount paid for accommodation for the Stannary Court in Cornwall, pursuant to Act 7 & 8 Vict. cap. 65 sec. 40, 1500*l.*; by balance on 8th November, 1862, viz.:—Cash at the Bank of England, 619*l.* 5*s.* 9*d.*; sterling value of capital invested in, 84,256*l.* 18*s.*, 3 per cent. stock, 77,974*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.*: total, 321,277*l.* 13*s.* 11*d.*

PATENT LAW.

Report of the Commissioners of Patents for Invention for 1862.

THE number of applications for provisional protection, recorded within the year 1862, was 3490; the number of patents passed thereon was 2191; the number of specifications filed in pursuance thereof was 2158; the number of applications lapsed or forfeited, the applicants having neglected to proceed for their patents within the six months of provisional protection, was 1299. The Act 16 Vict. c. 5. enacts that all letters patent for inventions to be granted under the provisions of the Patent Law Amendment Act, 1852, shall be made subject to the condition that the same shall be void at the expiration of three years and seven years respectively from the date thereof, unless there be paid, before the expiration of the said three years and seven years respectively, the stamp duties in the schedule thereunto annexed, viz. 50*l.* at the expiration of the third year, and 100*l.* at the expiration of the seventh year. The patent is granted for 14 years.

Four thousand patents bear date between the 1st October, 1852, and the 17th June, 1854 (being the first 4000 passed under the provisions of the Patent Law Amendment Act, 1852). The additional progressive stamp duty of 50*l.* was paid, at the end of the third year, on 1186 of that number, and 2814 became void. The additional progressive stamp duty of 100*l.* was paid at the end of the seventh year on 690 of the 1183 patents remaining in force at the end of the third year, and 796 became void. Consequently nearly 70 per cent. of the 4000 patents became void at the end of the third year, and nearly 90 per cent. became void at the end of the seventh year. The proportionate number of patents becoming void, by reason of non-payment, continues nearly the same to the present time.

All the provisional, complete, and final specifications, filed in the office upon the patents granted under the Act since 1852, have been printed and published in continuation, with lithographic outline copies of the drawings accompanying the same, according to the provisions of the Act 16 & 17 Vict. c. 115. The provisional specifications filed in the office and lapsed and forfeited, have also been printed and published in continuation. Printed certified copies of the specifications filed in the office, as also certified copies of patents, and of the record book of assignments of patents and licences, with copies of such assignments and licences, have been sent, in continuation, to the office of the director of Chancery in Edinburgh, and the enrolment office of the Court of Chancery in Dublin, pursuant to the Act of 1852 and the Act of 16 & 17 Vict. c. 115. The work of printing the specifications of patents under the old law, 13,561 in number, and dating from 1711 to 1852, was completed in 1858, and copies thereof are sold in the office at the cost of printing and paper.

Abstracts or abridgments of specifications, in classes and chronologically arranged, of all specifications of patents, from the earliest enrolled to the present time, are in course of preparation and publication. The classes already published and sold are—1, drain tiles and pipes; 2, sewing and embroidering; 3, manure; 4, preservation of food; 5, marine propulsion; 6, manufacture of iron and steel; 7, aids to locomotion; 8, steam culture; 9, watches, clocks, and other time-keepers; 10, fire-arms and other weapons, ammunition, and accoutrements; 11, paper—Part I. manufacture of paper, pasteboard, and papier-mâché; 12, paper—Part II. cutting,

folding, and ornamenting; including envelopes, cards, paper hangings, &c.; 13, typographic, lithographic, and plate printing; 14, bleaching, dyeing, and printing fabrics and yarns; 15, electricity and magnetism, their generation and applications; 16, manufacture and applications of india-rubber, gutta percha, &c., including air, fire, and water proofing; 17, production and application of gas; 18, metals and alloys; 19, photography; 20, weaving; 21, shipbuilding, repairing, sheathing, launching, &c.; 22, bricks and tiles; 23, plating or coating metals with metals; and 24, pottery. The following are in the press:—Preparation of fuel and apparatus for its combustion; steam engines; spinning; medicines, &c.; mining and metallurgy; music and musical instruments; railways and rolling stock; hydraulics; oils, animal, vegetable, and mineral; railway signals. It is intended to publish these abstracts at the rate of eight or ten series in each year, completing the work in four or five years. The abstracts are sold at prices covering the cost of printing and paper.

On the subject of the building of a patent office, public library, and museum, a report was transmitted to her Majesty's Treasury on the 7th August, 1862, to the effect that largely increased accommodation was necessary; that the commissioners of patents were in possession of a collection of very valuable and interesting models of patented machines and implements, as also of portraits of inventors, many of them gifts, and others lent by the owners for exhibition; and that they were now exhibited daily, and gratuitously, in a small portion of the museum at Kensington assigned to the commissioners of patents for that purpose by the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade; that a museum of this nature necessarily increases, and the number of models now exhibited may be considered as forming only the foundation of a great national museum; that the great work of printing the old specifications of patents, with the drawings attached thereto, enrolled in Chancery under the old law, dating from 1623 to 1852, and 12,977 in number, was commenced in 1853, and completed in 1858; that all these have been fully indexed in series and subjects, and the indexes printed and published; that these prints of specifications form about 900 volumes (450 imperial octavo volumes of drawings, and the like number of imperial octavo volumes of letter-press); the indexes forming seven imperial octavo volumes; that these valuable works have cost, in transcribing, printing, lithographic drawing, and paper upwards of 90,000*l*. That notwithstanding this great outlay, the balance sheet of income and expenditure for the year 1857, prepared for the annual report of the commissioners, and laid before Parliament, showed a surplus income from the commencement of the Act, 1st October, 1852, to the end of 1857, of 6000*l*.; and that the number of applications for patents may be safely estimated at 3000 per annum.

The space required for the proposed buildings may be estimated from the following circumstances:—It is considered by the commissioners of patents to be highly desirable, and indeed necessary, that the patent office museum should be so constituted as to become an historical and educational institution for the benefit and instruction of the skilled workmen employed in the various factories of the kingdom. These persons constitute a class which largely contributes to the surplus fund of the patent office in fees paid upon patents granted for their inventions. Amongst the various things necessary to be done in order to accomplish this object, it is considered to be of great importance that machines and exact models of machines, in subjects and

series of subjects, showing the progressive steps of improvement in each branch of manufacture, should be exhibited. For example, taking the case of steamboats, in order to show the rise and progress of this invention, it is necessary to exhibit in a series of exact models of machines, or by the machines themselves, each successive invention and improvement in steam propellers, from the first engine on the paddle system that drove a boat of two tons burden to the powerful machinery of the present day on the screw system in first-rate ships-of-war. Accordingly the present museum presents a very interesting collection to elucidate this subject. The original small experimental engine that drove the boat of two tons burden above referred to is now in the museum, and stands the first in the series of propellers and models of propellers; and in order to explain how the existence of such a museum is the cause of its becoming daily more perfect, it may be useful to state that in this branch the following valuable and interesting original machines and models of machines have lately been added to the museum, either by the gift of the proprietors or at a very trifling expense:—

First, a perfect model of Trevethick's locomotive engine, the first engine that ran upon common roads in 1803. Secondly, an original stationary and pumping engine made on Newcomen's principle, to which Watt applied his important invention for condensing, by the means of a separate vessel and air pump, the steam that had been used and formerly condensed in the cylinder. Thirdly, the original fixed engine made by Watt, in 1788, for converting rectilinear into circular motion, in order thereby to drive mill work by the use of his invention known as the sun and planet motion. These two last-mentioned engines drove for many years the machinery used at the Soho works of Messrs. Bolton and Watt, near Birmingham. Fourthly, the very early original locomotive engine, brought from the Wylam Colliery in Durham; the first engine which moved by the contact of smooth wheels on smooth rails. This engine was worked at the colliery nearly fifty years, commencing in 1813. And fifthly, the original "Rocket" locomotive engine made by George Stephenson, and worked at the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railroad in 1829, which, unfortunately, was the cause of Mr. Huskisson's death. These instances are selected from one division of the museum, and are enumerated for the purpose of pointing out, in the first place, the value of such a museum in an historical and social as well as in a scientific point of view; and, in the second place, the large space that must necessarily be required for the purpose of their accommodation, in such a manner as to enable those who wish to study them to be able to do so without difficulty or inconvenience. It is also to be borne in mind that the number of the models and machines will increase rapidly, year by year, and consequently that a large additional space of ground should be secured for the future extension of the museum.

The commissioners are also in possession of a large number of valuable models, which still remain in cases, because room cannot be found for their exhibition in the space assigned to them in the museum at South Kensington; indeed, so limited is that space, that they are obliged to postpone the acceptance of many valuable models offered as gifts by manufacturers and inventors. Several good models of machines have also, for the same reason, been lately removed to afford room for machines of a higher degree of interest.

The site proposed for such a museum was suggested to be Fife House and gardens, in Whitehall; and the proposal was favourably received.

The surplus income of the patent office, applicable to building purposes, amounted in the aggregate to 129,000*l*. The commissioners of patents did not propose to apply for building purposes any portion of this sum which has already been received and has formed part of the general revenue of the country, but merely that the surplus income of the present year (1862) and that of succeeding years should be applied for the purposes above enumerated.

The surplus income of the current year (1862) was estimated at 40,000*l*.

The commissioners of patents therefore earnestly requested the Treasury to sanction the appropriation of the site proposed by them for the patent office buildings; to give the necessary directions to her Majesty's Board of Works to obtain the proposed site, either by purchase or by a lease from the Crown, and to direct the architects to prepare the necessary plans, elevations, and estimates; and to direct such plans, elevations, and estimates to be laid before Parliament at the commencement of the ensuing session. The commissioners asked the Treasury to apply for a vote for such proportion of the estimated cost of the buildings as might be required for the year 1863-64; and should it be decided to purchase the land for the site, also to apply to Parliament for the sum of money necessary for that purpose, all such monies to be repaid out of the surplus income for the current and succeeding years.

SALMON FISHERIES.

First Annual Report of Salmon Fisheries, England and Wales.

THE commissioners were compelled to limit their inspection to the following rivers—the Severn, Wye, Usk, Teifi, Dee, Ribble, Lune, Derwent, Eden, Tyne, and Tees, the Avon, Teste and Itchen, of Hants, and the Taw and Torridge of Devon. The present value of the fisheries in England and Wales is, without doubt, very small compared with what it might and will be; still the sum total of the fish taken is very considerable. The commissioners were of opinion that, for the development of the salmon fisheries, it is absolutely necessary that a licence system should be sanctioned by the Legislature analogous to the game licences. The commissioners then proceeded to their report upon the different rivers as follows:—

BRISTOL CHANNEL.

The great estuary called the Bristol Channel receives the waters of the Severn, Wye, and Usk, the two first of which rivers are second to none in the United Kingdom; and the third, the Usk, is at the head of the English rivers of the second class.

This estuary is fished by means of "putts" and "putchers," and a certain, but very limited, number of stop nets, the first and more objectionable mode of fishing having ousted the more legitimate and once common method. There can be no doubt that putts were fished many years back; reference is made to them in 18 Geo. 3, c. 33, as "the ancient putts, to which, at some places, an inside wheel or diddle is fixed, whereby great quantities of the spawn or fry are taken and destroyed;" and we are led to believe that the putcher, the more destructive and deadly engine of the two, is of modern invention; an improvement, in short, upon the ancient putt.

Both coasts are studded with one or other of these instruments, the great proportion fishing on the ebb, a few on the flood, wherever advantage can be taken of the run of the tide. At Count Rocks ranks of the two combined fish on the ebb, and, aided by hedges of wattles, stretch out for nearly three quarters of a mile, completely across that moiety of the channel which runs on the Gloucestershire coast, so that, if the wind sets to that shore, nearly every descending fish must be captured. They have hitherto been fished with little regard to close time; and, as the fish common to the three rivers are often detained in the estuary for weeks waiting for a fresh, or unwilling to leave the salt water, the injury they have inflicted upon the fisheries has been great; and this injury has not been confined to the amount of fish taken by them. Self-acting and erected without much difficulty, they have been increased in extent and number whenever the efforts of private individuals or associations have improved the fisheries; and thus they have acted as a serious obstacle to improvement, and a discouragement to individual exertion.

It should be remembered that it is in the higher portions of the river that the fish are produced, and in the lower that they are taken in the greatest numbers; and unless some limit is put to the fishing in the tidal waters, so that the fish may be allowed in sufficient numbers to ascend the river, for the purpose of spawning, and protected when there, the breed must decrease. It is evident that it would be wise policy on the part of the lower men to limit the amount of their take to that which the river could bear without injury to its stock, and to protect the fish on these upper beds, if left to do so entirely at their own expense; but so far from acting thus, they have fished remorselessly, regarding as enemies all other interests than their own, and contributed not one farthing to the expense of preserving.

The commissioners then stated the means used for the preservation of these rivers; but more restrictions are needed.

THE SEVERN.

The Severn, 178 miles in length, drains an area of 4437 square miles. It is fished in the tideway up to Newnham by putts, putchers, and stop nets. Between Newnham and Gloucester, 10 draught nets are used; between Gloucester and Tewkesbury, inclusive of Tewkesbury, 10; between Tewkesbury and Worcester, inclusive of Worcester, 17; and between Worcester and Lincombe, the highest of the navigation weirs, 4: each of these nets is worked by three men. The next net that is regularly worked is twenty-seven miles above, at Iron Bridge. And there are one or two in the neighbourhood of Shrewsbury and at Poolquay. But we were told that since the erection of the navigation weirs, the first of which was built in 1842, the fishing above them had very much deteriorated. At Bridgnorth we heard that thirty salmon were then taken for one now, that the old nets had worn out, and the old fishermen too, and no new men had taken up the trade. So in the upper part the fisheries would no longer repay the cost of nets and boats, and even poachers had ceased to look for salmon, they had become so scarce. These navigation weirs, now five in number, were built under the Severn Navigation Act passed in 1842. Several attempts have been made by the company, in compliance with sections 158 and 159, to place fish passes over them. Unfortunately, the construction of passes was not understood, and the position of "slides," which were substituted for them, was wrongly chosen.

These weirs have undoubtedly had a most injurious effect upon the fisheries. Since their erection not only have the salmon decreased, but also the eels, lampreys, shad, and flounders, fish which afforded, at one time, no unimportant amount of food and employment.

Proceeding upwards from Lincombe, the first object of note is an eel fishery at Prestonboats, a short distance below Shrewsbury. The late owner has for many years been in the habit of fishing this weir during the spring, for the express purpose of taking the salmon fry on their descent to the sea; and we are informed that the amount so destroyed was very great, baskets of them being sent as presents all about the country, and the yeomanry dinner, given at that season of the year, liberally supplied.

The tributaries of the Severn, the Teme and Verniew, are important rivers. The Teme, sixty miles in length, flows into the Severn two miles below Worcester. It is barred at Powick, about two miles from the junction, by a fishing mill-dam, and is much obstructed by weirs; but if fish passes were put over them, it might afford good rod fishing to the proprietors. It would then be a most valuable and extensive nursery for the estuary fishing; and as it presents the nearest spawning ground to the sea, it would be largely used by the late heavy fish. It is, in all respects, a river of admirable quality; and as it is highly preserved for the trout and grayling fishery, we hope that the proprietors and lessees will be anxious to allow salmon to stock their waters, and will make the simple arrangements necessary for that object.

The Verniew, forty miles long, joins the Severn below Poolquay, and in it the greater part of the present stock of Severn fish are produced. There are, we are informed, three mills on it before reaching Meifod, but they are not great impediments. Above Meifod the river divides into the Llanfair water and the Pont river. The first is soon barred by a mill called White Lion, succeeded by three others. Up the Pont there is a free run to the Falls of Dolanog, where the fish are taken by a lift net, into which they jump in their efforts to surmount the impediments. Dolanog is 150 miles from the sea, and fish are commonly taken there even as early as May.

The present state of the Severn fisheries is not so low as it has been. Public attention was roused to their possible value and actual poverty about twenty years ago. An association was formed in 1842 at Worcester, and others sprang up shortly afterwards, in connection with it at Berkeley, Gloucester, Tewkesbury, Upton, Stourport, Bewdley, and Bridgnorth, on the Severn, and at Tenbury, on the Teme. Associations were also formed at Shrewsbury and in Montgomeryshire, independent of that at Worcester. The first of these has alone continued to act from that time to the present, though it would have been dissolved but for the appointment of the Commission of Inquiry of 1860, and the hope thereby held out of improved legislation. This association worked by men, who, having no private rights, acted on public grounds alone, deserves great credit for the manner in which it has struggled with the ignorance and rapacity opposed to it, and for the good that has attended its unselfish efforts. Since last year it has received increased subscriptions, gentlemen of weight in the county have become active members, and associations have been revived at Bridgnorth and Shrewsbury, and formed at Meifod for the purpose of co-operating with it.

THE WYE.

The Wye, 150 miles in length, discharges a great volume of water into the Bristol Channel. High up its course, long, large, and exceedingly deep pools afford shelter and harbour to the fish even in the driest summer time; the main river possessing most extensive spawning ground, its tributaries, the Monnow, Llynfi, Bychanwye, Eddw, Ithon, Yrfon, Elan, &c., contribute a very large additional amount. The Monnow, which occupies the position in the Wye of the Teme in the Severn, is closed by mill dams; but the others are generally open and most valuable. The Yrfon has tributaries of its own; the Cwefry, Dulas Upper, Dulas Lower, Cammarch, Cledach, Cerdin, and Llydwyd, which swarm with spawning salmon in the winter months; and the Ithon has a branch worth noticing, named Nantcleweddy. With these natural advantages, there is an absence of artificial evils—not a dam obstructs the ascent of the fish from Chepstow to Rhayader, where some natural falls offer a serious impediment, and great facility to poachers; the trunk river is practically unpolluted by mines or manufactures. Mines there are up some of the tributaries, and tin works on some of the lesser brooks. We have been as yet unable to inspect these, but the evidence we have leads us to believe that both mines and tin works are unimportant and innoxious. The Wye possesses at the present moment perhaps a better stock of fish than any other river, with the exception of the Teifi and Usk (which rivers are not materially obstructed by dams), but, compared with its capabilities, its fisheries are in a lamentable condition. The 18 miles from the mouth upwards already referred to are let for 120*l.* a year. The causes of this are patent: they are, first, over-fishing in the tideway and lower part of the river; secondly, the destruction of the spawning fish and fry in the upper waters.

The only limit to the fishing in the lower waters has been the point beyond which it would not repay the cost and labour. Putt and putcher fisheries were increased as the fisheries improved, the same rule obtaining with regard to net fishing in the fresh water. Stone piers have been erected, jutting into the river of like form and purpose to the cairns, now made illegal, in the Tweed, and stop-nets take the fish led into them by the eddy so formed.

At Lidbrook boards are placed upon an old weir stretched nearly across the river, and in certain states of water every fish is captured by the stop-net below. The river is principally fished by stop-nets. They are worked, wherever there is a "stand," from the mouth up to Hereford, many of them by means of cairns, as just stated; there are 23 from the sea to Chepstow Bridge; 15 from thence to Llandogo, 3 miles above Tintern; the number between this and Monmouth we could not obtain; and 40 are stated to be used between Monmouth and Hereford. Draught nets are also used, and tuck or coracle nets, and a mode of fishing called beating. In clear and low water the fish seek shelter from the sun under the banks and overhanging bushes or trees; a trammel net is set round the pool, and the fish are hunted into it with boats and poles. The draught nets and beating are used as high as Whitney. The fish have been killed on the spawning beds to a disastrous extent, and almost with impunity. Last spring, on the Llynfi, we saw, along the length of the spawning beds, the burnt remains of the straw brands that had been used for lights; and similar records of the winter's fishing, we have been informed, might be seen almost everywhere

on the tributaries. The destruction of fry also has been carried to an extent unknown in any other river; 200 men are spoken of as fishing between Hereford and Monmouth, with a rod and line, regularly at the time when the shoals are descending, a man often taking six or seven score in a day; other rods are fishing for them all up the river, and nets worked almost wherever a shallow collects the fry together.

THE USK.

The Usk, 77 miles in length, and considerably the smallest of these three rivers, is an example of what could be effected for the improvement of salmon fisheries, even with the former contradictory and imperfect law. Seventeen years ago, a fishing mill weir at Trostrey, eight miles above the tideway, barred the river completely, and not a fish escaped the boxes; the value of the mill and fishery at that time was 27*l*. An association was then formed by the energy of one or two neighbouring gentlemen, who rented it, together with the fishing, from thence to the mouth of the river. The weir had been raised (as we have found in other cases) far above the height required for the working of the mill, with the object of discharging through the boxes the surplus water, which otherwise would have gone over the weir, and enabled the fish, taking advantage of the flood, to overcome the obstacle. Their first step was to alter the boxes, so as to give the fish a free passage upwards, and to reduce the height of the weir to that which was necessary for the mill. The net fisheries below were sublet, and the other water preserved for rod-fishing to subscribers. The result has been that several putcher fisheries have been set up on the coast where none previously existed; the existing putcher fishery is said to have been doubled; the net men, restricted to fishing four days a week, pay the same rent that they previously paid when allowed to work without limit; that the water above the weir, where fishing was never thought of, has now become valuable; and that although when the association was formed there were only 14 or 15 resident salmon rods on the river, there are now 120, in addition to whom many strangers avail themselves of the permission given to take season, or weekly, or daily tickets.

The fisheries of the Usk are affected by the putts and putchers of the estuary equally with those of the Severn and Wye. The tidal water of the river is fished by draught nets. There are eight at Caerleon, and two at Newbridge. Immediately above Trostrey weir there is a short piece of water, that was netted until lately; but the association now pay the tenant 10*l*. a year and give him a ticket to fish their waters, on condition that he will not use a net in that portion of the river. Above this, there are no nets used except by poachers.

There are many tributaries to the Usk, the upper branches being most valuable. The nearest to the sea is the Abon Llewyd or Pontypool river. On this there are five tin works, and the fish have been destroyed by the discharge from them. The river is small, but is said to have been a fine fishing stream and of great breeding capacity. The iron plates used in the manufacture are, previously to being tinned, steeped in a mixture of one quart of vitriol to five gallons of water; when the power of the vitriol had been exhausted, the decoction was suffered to run into the river, and by it the fish were destroyed. We inspected the lowest work on the Pontypool river. Complaints had been made to the manager of the association of the injurious effects of this refuse, and he had given orders, which were being

carried out when we were there, that the refuse should be collected into a tub, which when full is pushed down a tramway and emptied into a pit dug for the purpose. These works are small, their weekly consumption of vitriol being from 12 to 16 bottles a week of 200 lbs. each; and one small pit of 8 ft. square by 3 ft. deep with no outlet, save by natural drainage through the bottom, suffices to receive the refuse for the space of six months, when a new pit will be dug.

Another of the tributaries of the Usk, the Clyddach, is completely poisoned, and it is not easy to assign the cause. Many persons told us that the evil proceeded from some large iron foundries upon it not now in work, but we found in their neighbourhood a man who had, as he said, carried the first bag of lime with which their foundation was laid, and there were no fish in the river then. There are and have been for many years mines up the valley of iron and coal, and limestone quarries, but there is nothing in these substances hurtful to life, and we are inclined to think that the bed in which these mines are worked must possess some mineral, such as arsenic or sulphur. Our time was too limited to enable us to ascertain whether this supposition is correct, neither is it of much importance as far as the Clyddach and Usk are concerned, for the poison does not damage the Usk, and the Clyddach itself is a small stream blocked up by natural falls. Complaints were made that the refuse ashes from the iron foundries above-mentioned were turned into Clyddach, and carried into the Usk, to the great annoyance of the fishermen. A very little additional trouble would add these refuse ashes to the heap of "slag" or refuse from the smelting, the bulk of which is too great to allow of its being emptied into the river.

NORTH-EAST GROUP.

On that part of the north-east coast that lies between the Humber and Tweed there have been a far greater number of salmon captured during the last few years than has been generally supposed. The coast fisheries, carried on by means of bag and fly, stake and hang nets, have been fed by the produce of the rivers Tweed, Aln, Coquet, Tyne, Wear, Tees, Humber, and a few other lesser streams. The Tweed is not within the jurisdiction of the Salmon Fishery Act, 1861, and therefore does not fall within the scope of this report. We may state, however, that it has been affected by the fixed engines that have existed on the coast beyond the five miles from its mouth, within which distance they were declared illegal by the Tweed Act of 1859, and that it will be correspondingly benefited by their removal under the 11th section of the Act above referred to. We hear, too, from the best authority, that the 19th section, "Penalty on selling fish during close time," has been of much service to the Tweed. By it the sale is rendered difficult, the market uncertain, and the gain and consequent inducement to poach doubtful. The limited time at our disposal has prevented us visiting the Aln and Coquet and the coast north of Cullercoats, two miles above Tynemouth. Neither have we been able to inspect the river Wear, or the Humber and coast between that and Redcar. We must confine this report, therefore, to the coast between Redcar and Cullercoats and the rivers Tees and Tyne. Stake nets were first erected on the coast at Redcar, about 25 years ago. A commercial traveller named Gaunt, with some knowledge of Scotch nets and a turn for speculation, saw salmon leaping there about that time; and obtaining leave from the proprietor of the foreshore to erect stake weirs, he put up four nets, paid a rent of 30l.,

and at first did well, but he soon worked out the thin stock of the unpreserved and hardly fished rivers, and gave up the fishery. His example, however, had been unfortunately followed. Other nets were erected, and we found that last year 7 stake weirs were fished from about one mile south of Redcar to Hartlepool; and on the sands of Hart estate were 2 bag and 2 stake nets.

The next fisheries on the coast are at Monkwearmouth. Grouped together here, 11 or 12 bag nets and 2 fly nets were fished last summer. These fisheries are close to the mouth of the Wear, which at the present moment produces no salmon proper—salmo-salar—of which fish their principal take is composed; and the nearest salmon river to them is the Tees, 25 miles on the south, and Tyne, 8 miles on the north. The next stake, bag, and fly nets are met with at St. Mary's Island; and we have been informed that there were 5 or 7 bag and bob nets worked there, and 4 or 5 more on the Blythe sands above. In all, on this part of the coast there were worked last year from 33 to 37 bag, stake, or fly nets. A very intelligent bag-net fisherman at Monkwearmouth gave us the following estimate of his expense for 1859:—Rent rate and cost of 2 nets, 70*l*.; wages of 4 men from 1st April to 14th August, say 19 weeks, at 1*l*. per week, 76*l*.; profit, 35*l*.; —181*l*., the value of the fish that must have been sold by him in that year. His expenses and profit were about the same in 1860: 1861 was a notoriously bad fishing season, and with similar expenses the profit was only 15*l*. If, then, this estimate is correct, and we see no reason to doubt it, it may be safely applied to the 35 or 31 other nets, for the expense of fly and stake nets is generally much larger than that of bag nets; and taking the smallest number as correct, we see that salmon to the value of 2986*l*. 10*s*. must have been taken in an average fishing season on this portion of the Northumberland and Durham coast; an amount far beyond what the very depressed condition of the fisheries of the rivers on that coast could afford, and which was taken by men who did not contribute a farthing of money or moment of time towards the preservation of the stock fish.

THE TYNE.

The North Tyne, 38 miles long, and the South Tyne, 33, unite above Hexham, and flow through a common channel of 35 miles into the German Ocean. The value of the Tyne, as a salmon river, has of late years much decreased. The change has been attributed to the increased number of steamers and other shipping in the estuary, and to the growth of Newcastle, rather than to the excessive fishing on the coast, and the weirs and want of protection up the river. A considerable quantity of refuse is, without doubt, discharged into the Tyne from Newcastle; but, fortunately, the rise of tide at the city is 13 feet, and it is only 9 or 10 miles from the sea, so that the filth, never permitted to accumulate, is twice a day discharged into and lost in the German Ocean. The running fish racing in on the top of the flood tide would be carried by it 8 miles above Newcastle, unaffected by colliers, ships, or men. The shipping has much increased of late years; but as the shipping of Cork has not driven salmon from the Lee, and they have been multiplied four or fivefold by care and protection in the Liffey, where the shipping is denser and the pollution greater, considered with reference to the volume of water, than in the Tyne, we see no reason to believe that the causes which do not injure the Irish fish should be hurtful to the Northumbrian. At either side of the mouth of the Tyne, stake nets

were placed some years since. The injury they caused was so evident, that in the Act of the Tyne Fishery Commissioners, 5 and 6 Vict. c. 63, they were declared illegal, and their use prohibited within $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles on each side of the mouth of the river. This provision was evaded by erecting them immediately outside those limits, both north and south, and where they were equally injurious to the fisheries. From the mouth to Bywell dam, a distance of 23 miles, the river has been fished from time immemorial by draught nets; there are 18 stations for nets between those points. Some of these fisheries are not let, and the rents of the others have fallen; in 1842, when they had already so much deteriorated that the Act above-mentioned was passed for their regulation, their value was 800*l.*; in 1860 it was 550*l.*; in 1861 it was still lower. Bywell fishing mill dam, the only impediment upon the Tyne below the junction of the two rivers, is a most formidable obstacle, passable only in rare floods. A hole, 4 feet broad, was cut through the rock on the south side of the dam for the purpose of allowing the fish to go up, but as in an ordinary running state of the river there were 6 or 7 feet of water above it, the superincumbent pressure would have dashed away any fish that approached it.

A small stream, not the size of a trout brook, flows into the Tyne below this dam, and has afforded the only spawning ground for the baffled fish; though protected in some measure by the keepers of the proprietor of the dam, they have been killed there in great numbers. This gentleman has determined to put a fish pass over the dam, and as soon as the season permits its construction will be commenced. And we may add, that for the last two years he has taken the fishery into his own hands, and ordered an annual close time to be observed, and we had evidence that during those two years the fisheries above had improved. From Bywell dam to the confluence of the north and south branches there are about twelve miles of good fishing water, with extensive and valuable spawning beds. The North Tyne is a river of excellent quality, rocky pools and gravelly fords succeed each other at frequent intervals, and its natural good properties are not injured by mines or manufactures; on it there are several mill dams, but that at Barrasford, the only one that was at all injurious, was partially broken away by ice, a year or two since, and will not, we understand, be rebuilt, so that the fish will have a free run up the North Tyne from mouth to source, as soon as the pass at Bywell dam is erected. The Reed, a valuable tributary twenty-four miles in length, is not so open, a mill at Woodburn three or four miles from the junction with the main river impeding the ascent. Above this we were informed that a succession of deep pools alternating with shallows offer spawning ground, with shelter close at hand, to the breeding fish. The white trout, of which there are no small number, seem to turn up the Reed in preference to the North Tyne.

The South Tyne, of much the same natural character as the north, was once, we were told, equally, if not more productive, but that owing to the extensive lead mines upon it and its tributaries, salmon are very rarely now seen in it; the largest of these mines drains into the tributary streams, East and West Allen. About thirteen years ago a mill dam was erected on the West Allen, which is a complete barrier. The East Allen we inspected, on which are the valuable lead mines at Allenheads. The mines are large and the volume of water small. In the upper part the whole river is utilized for the washing and other processes, and yet we found that trout were taken within three, four, and even two miles of the workings; the fish were

said to be smaller and fewer, but the increased number of fisherman might account for this.

Three-quarters of a mile above the junction of South with North Tyne, Warden paper mill is worked by a dam sufficient in itself to account for the loss of fish. Built in three sloping stages at different angles, the two uppermost of stone, the lowest of wood, we were not surprised to hear that since it was raised about six years ago, salmon have been very rarely, and smolts seldom seen above it. The same witnesses informed us that they had constantly seen twelve and even twenty salmon leaping underneath it; and it is probable that the fish, finding such an obstruction to their course at so short a distance from the junction, would, even if the South Tyne were as pure as the North, drop down again and ascend the open branch. We do not for a moment doubt that lead mines have an injurious effect upon fish, and indeed upon life of all sorts. In some rivers, such as the Rheidol and Istwith, reference to which is made in the report of the Salmon Fishery Commissioners, no living thing is to be found in the waters, but we think that the question is one of degree, and that whether the poison be in the ore itself or in the refuse got rid of in working it, if that poison is sufficiently diluted no harm accrues to the fish, and it is possible that the blame that should attach to the Warden Mill dam has been hastily heaped on the mines, as the evil done by the Bywell dam and over-fishing was attributed to the coals and colliers of Newcastle. Living trout are found in the East Allen within two miles of the workings of the mine, the numerous brooks running into the Tees, and acting merely as drains from the mines, brooks which run white with the hush six days in the week, are stocked with trout, not large in size or number; but every miner has a spear or a net, which renders either increase impossible. The fish will not take a bait when this hush is in the water, but on Sunday, when the brook has run clear, the fish feed. In like manner in the main rivers of the Tyne and Tees, when the hush discolours the water the fish cease to rise; in a few hours, perhaps, the water has run clear, and the fisherman recommences his sport. Salmon may be more readily affected by polluted water than trout, and, sickened by it, may turn away; but we find below the Warden Mill twelve and twenty salmon reported to be seen at a time seeking to surmount the weir, and none found above it in water not more polluted than that in which they are detained.

THE TEES.

The estuary of the Tees, twenty-five miles in length, is fished with draught nets; that moiety of the water, thirteen miles in length, which is below Stockton stone bridge, by the public on their common-law right; that above is private property, and is let for 52*l.* a year. In 1859 the Tees Conservancy Commissioners determined to do something for the fisheries; they exacted the payment of a licence from nineteen or twenty boats fishing in the public water, and set up a stake net for themselves. The common fishermen, however, resisted this system of preservation, the stake net was taken down, and the licences are not paid. It speaks well for the productive powers of the ill-used Tees that the fish taken during the season the net was standing paid the expenses of its erection and working. In addition to the salmon and sea-trout, sparlings or smelts, and sprats are taken in the estuary in considerable quantities. From the tidal limit to Dimsdale lock there is a considerable quantity of rod fishing,—one gentleman's water here

is let for 10*l.* to the association for angling purposes. The fisheries of the Tees have had to contend with every difficulty to which a river can be subjected. On the coast have been erected the fixed engines already described: at Dimsdale, five miles from the limit of tidal flow, is a fishing mill dam of the worst description, succeeded by numerous others. The natural fall of the river is considerable, and advantage has been taken of it to erect a series of mill-dams, to which, in most cases, a fish trap, or even two, have been attached. Its several valuable tributaries are equally obstructed by dams or by natural falls, and most of them receive the hush water from mines. Finally, the upper portion of the river is barred to the fish by the falls at High Force. Notwithstanding these many and serious evils, there are a certain number of salmon in the Tees, and the take of "scurves," the local name for white or sea trout, is considerable.

Dimsdale dam works a corn mill and two fishing locks,—one owner and one occupier of the joint holding. The weir is six feet high and perpendicular. The tenant estimates the value of the fishery to be 30*l.* a year; his principal take is sea-trout. This fishery has, we are informed, been worked with no regard to close time. Fortunately for the Tees, it is as described to us, a mad river, and rattling floods at times have enabled the fish to surmount this and the numerous other obstacles in their course.

From Dimsdale up to Barnard Castle, there are nine mill-dams; those at Carbury, Gainford, Wycliff, and the Abbey Mill, have each a trap, and the Leadings and Demeane mills, both worked by the same dam, have each one. In addition to these, there is a natural fall at Uvington, on which is a fish-lock, and another at Whorlton Bridge with two; so that the Tees, in addition to its contribution to the stake nets outside, supports twenty draught nets, and a fishery rented at 52*l.* a year, and has maintained eleven fish traps between Dimsdale and Barnard Castle. Scoop nets are also much used during floods in the neighbourhood of Barnard Castle; chambers are cut in the rock at the side of the river, and the fish, on their passage upwards, rest in them out of the violence of the flood. The head of the net fits these chambers; it is plunged into the river, drawn into the chamber, and every fish resting in it is "scooped" out. It was stated to us that a man with one of these nets killed fifteen salmon and scurves on a Sunday, in August last. Above Barnard Castle there are mills at Cotherstone and Egglestone. At this latter place there was a fishing-lock; it was, however, washed away three or four years since and has not been replaced. Above this point several brooks connected with lead mines fall into the Tees,—Ecclesburn, Hudeshope, Newbiggin, Bowelees, Langden, Harewood on the Durham side, and the Lune, the May, and Merrigal becks on the Yorkshire.

THE EDEN.

Eden-head is at the foot of Lady Pillars, from the opposite side of which springs the Swale, and after a course of seventy miles, the Eden falls into the Solway Firth. The Eamont, Lowther, Lyvenet, Crodundle, Martindale, Peterel, Caldew, and other streams swell its volume of water, and afford grand nurseries for salmon. It contests with the Severn the merit of being the earliest river in England. But its fisheries are at a very low ebb, and its position most unsatisfactory. Under the Act of last session the stake nets and other fixed engines, south of its mouth, are swept away, but the current of the river sets along the north, the Scotch shore, and from it

numerous stake nets stretch out their leaders and intercept the fish on their passage up and down the tideway. As long as these engines are allowed to remain, there can be no sufficient inducement to the river proprietors to protect the fish. Men will not spend money and encounter the opposition and the risk to themselves or servants attending the suppression of poaching, in order that strangers may multiply engines that they justly consider are inflicting injury upon them. If the fish could be increased with the existing number of engines, their capture would repay the erection of more; more would be immediately erected, and the upper proprietor, at whose cost that increase was obtained, would reap no return.

Some good will accrue to the river without doubt by the suppression of the fixed engines on the south side, but, as stated above, the main current is along the north coast, and except when the wind blows strongly from it, the principal run of the fish is along that shore. The fishery of the estuary and part of the fresh water next the estuary is carried on by means of draught nets, poke nets, and halve nets. There is no public water, and the private rights are much intermixed and subdivided. There can be no doubt that the natural qualities of the Eden and its tributaries are most excellent. The Eamont, nine miles in length, connects the main river with Ulswater; Carlton weir, however, built six or seven years ago, for the purpose of driving a wheel that raises the water supply of Penrith, bars the Eamont and the Lake, with its numerous feeders. The Lowther, about twelve miles in length, opens Haweswater Lake to the fish. The Lyvenet, a smaller stream, runs from Clibburn, and affords excellent spawning ground, so also the Crodundle, eight miles in length, rising at Cropfell, and the Peterel, lower down, which has the best trout in the county. With all these advantages the condition of the Eden is extremely bad. The fish have not been allowed to ascend in sufficient numbers to stock the river and to offer an inducement to the upper proprietors to protect them, and the lower men, whose short-sighted over-fishing has brought about this result, have nothing to mitigate the evil of their creation. So poaching, encouraged by immunity, has been carried on with open daring, and three men are even now waiting their trial for the murder of Edward Atkinson, a watcher, who was killed whilst, in the execution of his duty, he was endeavouring to capture one of a number of men illegally fishing. The poachers in this county are numerous and bold. Going out nightly, they sweep the shallows for trout and brandlings, as salmon fry are there called, and return in the open daylight with their wet nets and filled baskets on their shoulders, defying police and keepers. These nets may be seen drying on the sides of the houses in Penrith. As soon as the man is on the high road with his plunder, he is safe, and it is a matter much to be regretted that notorious poachers cannot be made to account for their possession of fish, and punished in default of proof that those fish were lawfully come by, in the same manner that a man under suspicious circumstances can be made to account for his possession of goods supposed to be stolen.

THE DERWENT.

The Derwent of Cumberland is $35\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and drains an area of 268 square miles, but its size is by no means to be taken as a measure of its value. There are but few rivers in England connected with lakes; the most important are the Dee, running through Bala; the Leven, from

Windermere; Eden, from Ulswater and Haweswater; and the Derwent. Of this type, the Derwent is, perhaps, the best example. The main river drains Bassenthwaite lake and Derwentwater, and is connected by the Cocker with Loweswater, Crummockwater, and Buttermere, and by the Greta with Thirlmere. A lake is a very valuable adjunct to a salmon river, especially if there is much spawning ground above it. It affords shelter and protection to the fish, new or old. The river that connects one with the sea is nearly always early, and the fish will rest in it with comparative safety until ready to spawn, when a short run is made up one of its tributaries, the spawn deposited, and the fish drops back to the friendly water until sufficiently recruited to take advantage of a fresh and make for sea. The coast of Cumberland has, like the coast of Northumberland, been much abused by stake and bag nets. These engines, originating in Scotland, have spread from that country for some distance down the English coast wherever the shore was suitable, and the fishing would repay their erection; and the complaint universally made against them is loudly echoed at Workington. We have not made a survey of the coast, but we are informed that there have been three stake nets on the north of the Derwent mouth, with three chambers in each, and leaders of 300 to 400 yards in length, and that two miles further north there were two sets more. These nets are said to have done especial injury to the grilse fishing. At the season of their run the weather is generally fine, the sea calm, and consequently clear, and the schools, seeing the nets, are frightened and driven back to sea into the mouths of their numerous salt-water enemies.

The first and the principal fishery in the river, indeed hitherto the only one, is at Salmon Hall, about one mile above the limit of tidal flow: the river is here divided, and across each of its branches a dam is stretched, with a fishing cruive in the centre; the dam also works a flour mill, and supplied some tin works, now not in use, with water. It is of little height, but a grating of bars above four feet long fixed on its top, projected over the surface of the river, and no fish could leap through. A draught net is used by the same tenant a short distance below the dam. The only other impediment on the Derwent is at Fitz Mill; thirteen years ago this dam was heightened, and the few salmon that were at that time able to reach the water above were stopped; occasionally a fish was still taken, but in Cumberland dialect "it was a very odd one;" a small fishing box or cruive was fitted to the dam about two years ago, but it has taken little, and will probably be abandoned. This dam is seven feet high, and a bad impediment, but a ladder will be placed over it as soon as the season permits; a long mill leat, taken from the river above Cockermouth Castle, works four mills; the tail race discharges into the pool below the Fitz Mill dam. When they are working the lead from the tail race is strong, and attracts the fish baffled by the Fitz dam, and we were informed that some salmon, and numbers of sea trout, were taken in it. A net is placed at the mouth next the pool, the sluices at the mill are shut, and the fish left dry. Half-a-mile above at Cockermouth, the Derwent is joined by its principal tributary. The Cocker, as stated above, drains three lakes, and affords with them and their numerous feeders a large amount of first-class spawning ground. Some salmon and a good many sea trout go up the Cocker, but they are smaller in size and later in season than the Derwent fish.

Into the Derwentwater runs the Greta, Barrowdale Becks, Glender Reterrer, and other streams. There are five dams on the Greta, but they

are of small importance, and the river itself is of fine quality; we found witnesses who had seen salmon of 25 and 30 lbs. killed in it some time previous to the erection of the Fitz weir. The Buer also, six miles in length, that branch of the Greta which drains Thirlmere, has the finest spawning ground possible, and salmon in quantities used to be seen on the beds at the foot of Thirlmere. Thirlmere is three miles in length; into it run the brooks from Helvellyn, at the very foot of which salmon spawn. The Glender Reterrer, ten or eleven miles in length, rises in Scawfell, and is equally valuable; salmon still spawn in it. So great indeed is the quantity, and so good the quality of the spawning ground supplied to the Derwent by its numerous tributaries, that we were not surprised to hear the new lessee of Salmon Hall, a person of practical experience and knowledge, acquired on different rivers, assert that the Derwent was a wonderful breeder, and would, if properly cared for, equal, if not surpass, in production any river in the kingdom. The size of the fish too is great; this witness has seen one of 44 lbs., and stated that fish have been taken above 60 lbs. He was arranging artificial breeding ponds when we were there, for the purpose of making experiments, the results of which we look for with interest.

THE DEE.

The Dee rising above and passing through Bala Lake is joined immediately beneath it by the Trewern, and after a course of 93 miles, flows into the sea 20 miles below Chester. The estuary and tidal portion of the river have been fished by draft, trammel, and fixed nets. The latter are fixed to posts or poles driven into the soil, and erected across currents or channels on the flats or sands in the vicinity of the town of Flint; they range for some miles above and below that place, and extend to both shores of the estuary wherever the channels are suitable. The fish are taken in the receding tide; having passed upwards for, perhaps, 20 miles, they do not in the absence of rain seek to ascend the river beyond the tidal flow until the latter end of ebb, when the flow of water is confined to the comparatively narrow passages referred to.

TAW AND TORRIDGE.

The two principal rivers of Devonshire, the Taw of forty-nine miles in length, and the Torridge of fifty-two, form a common estuary at Bideford Bay. Twenty-one or twenty-two nets with four men to each net are worked in the estuary on the common-law right, and the men and their families are mainly dependent for their support on the produce of the salmon fisheries; indeed, we are informed that last year the nets were worked all the year round. Much difficulty has been experienced this year in enforcing the close season, and we were informed that from the 7th to the 22nd of October 14½ cwts. of salmon were sent away from Instow station alone; many boxes of fish being despatched in the same fortnight from other stations, and the neighbouring towns and villages also supplied. The men fished openly, and in defiance of the law. A conviction under the Act, for having unseasonable fish in possession, was subsequently obtained, and the evil checked by which they were ignorantly, but inevitably, destroying their own means of subsistence.

The Torridge, a twin sister of the Taw, resembles her in all respects. The first weir at Beam serves a fish trap on one side, and three mills on the

other, and in the tail race of the lowest mill there is also a trap. Ascending the river above Torrington is a stone weir used to supply the Rolle canal with water, and two mills with water power; to this a ladder should be affixed. Next is a stone fishing mill dam at Beaford. The trap is in the tail race, and by an ingenious outrigger, constructed three years ago, projecting from the mouth of the tail race into the river, a lead is obtained which attracts a great proportion of the fish. On the Torridge and its tributary the Okement are several brush weirs of the same character as those described on the Taw. The Okement, a river admirably adapted for the production of salmon, is finally barred at Monk Okehampton many miles from its source by an insuperable stone weir. These two rivers are singular in several respects:—1. On them alone have traps been openly used for taking kelts. 2. Their brush weirs are peculiar. 3. There are no other rivers of a similar size which in defiance of abuses so great, produce so large an amount of fish. One great cause of this is, no doubt, to be found in the size of the floods which often permit the fish a free passage over the weirs. It was suggested to us at Barnstable and Bideford that the police might give great assistance in preventing fishing for salmon in the estuary during close season, as the boats would be constantly within their observation, and they would in the execution of their other duties have the opportunity presented them of seizing the fish, either as it was landed, or sent off by rail or other conveyance to market. There can be no doubt that if the breeding fish were allowed to spawn, and the kelts to return to the sea and fatten, two objects of a strictly public interest would be served, there would be a large increase in the supply of a most valuable article of food, and the estuary fisheries would afford employment to a far greater number of men.

AVON, TESTE, AND ITCHIN.

The Hampshire rivers Avon, Teste, and Itchin present in common somewhat peculiar characteristics; draining a country of a chalk formation, they remain full at seasons of drought, when larger rivers have shrunk into streams; and the sudden and heavy floods common to the rivers which drain more rocky and mountainous districts are to them unknown. Flowing through valleys, the upper crust of which is generally peaty, and the foundation nearly always gravel, the greater part of their bed is deep, and such shallows as there are being often covered with a deposit half peat half chalk, they do not offer any considerable quantity of spawning ground for some distance from the sea. Unfortunately there are few rivers, the gates of which are more closely shut. Many mills utilize the water power, which the holding properties of these rivers enable them to afford with unusual steadiness; and a complete system of hatches for the purposes of irrigation bar the different channels into which they are subdivided. Unable to ascend the river, the fish are often driven to spawn in the small carriers, which a few weeks will see dry, the water being diverted into other channels. In the Itchin valley we saw two spawning beds, which had been resorted to by fish in their extremity, one in a small meadow carrier at a spot where the cattle had trodden up the gravel in crossing it; the other in the canal close by. It is hardly possible that spawn so deposited could come to maturity.

The Avon, 67 miles in length, and having a catchment basin of 666 square miles, flows into the sea at Christ Church. Outside the harbour

a net is fixed, resembling with its long leader and chamber a stake net; it kills by hanging the fish by the gills. A set net of 200 yards in length is, we were informed, stretched at times across the river within the harbour. About half a mile above the point reached by the tide, Knapp fishing mill-dam opposes the run of the fish. "Racks" placed in the open sluices pen the fish below the weir, and a net is drawn immediately beneath it. When the racks are out and the sluices open, the water pours on to a stone floor, over which it runs with such violence into the pool below that a heavy spawning fish would have great difficulty in stemming the force of the current. In 1860, 68 salmon were taken; number of trout not known. In 1861, 58 salmon and about 250 trout, from 4 lbs. to 1 lb. in weight; one reached 8 lbs. Between Knapp weir and any spawning ground there is another set of fishing weirs, at Winckton, similarly used. The ascent, when the racks are out and the sluices open, is not difficult, as at Knapp, and an alteration in the sluices has been made by the new tenant, which will pass the old fish safely down on their course to the sea. A limited extent of shallows is then met with before Ringwood, above the mills at which place, but very few fish can possibly get. Ringwood is about ten miles from the sea, so that six-sevenths of the river, and that the portion, we may almost say, only suited for the production of salmon, is locked up.

The Teste, 35 miles in length, from its source at Upton to Redbridge, is well known as one of the best trout rivers in England, and might be equally distinguished for its salmon. Divided into three streams at the limit of tidal flow, the south one is blocked by a fishing mill-dam, the other two by fishing weirs; the fortunate fish who escapes one or other of these traps, would meet with another series of obstacles at Nursling mill, and if he should surmount them would find himself in four miles of open and deep water, ending with a small spawning bed and a system of mills at Romsey, which would effectually check his progress.

THE LUNE.

The Lune is $53\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and flows into Morecambe Bay. The tidal part of the river is about seven miles in length. The rights of fishing in this tideway are divided, the corporation of Lancaster having a portion, and the landowners on either side claiming rights. Fixed engines have been used from time to time, but the right to use them has been disputed. Actions at law were brought, the landowners did not defend them, and the fishermen submitted and paid the costs. The tenants to the corporation and others fish with draught nets. The tide flows a short way above Lancaster Bridge as far as Skerton weir. The proprietor has exercised a right of fishing at and below it. This right is of ancient date, and has, we believe, been exercised continuously. In the weir there have been three separate cribs or boxes of ordinary construction, and the Skerton fishery has been for many years the principal one of the Lune. This and the other fisheries have greatly deteriorated in value; the Skerton fishery is represented to have produced in 1832 or 1833, about 1,000*l.* per annum, and to have since fallen to 307*l.* per annum. It is stated that the weir has been raised within the last fourteen or fifteen years, and that at one time previously it was a timber or hurdle weir, not a stone one, as it is now. It would not be so serious an obstruction, were it not that in ordinary floods, when the fish might ascend, the water, which would otherwise flow over the weir, is discharged through the fishing-boxes. However, the proprietor,

who we are confident will be greatly benefited by the increase which will accrue through the general regulations under the Act, has intimated his intention of abandoning the use of the fishing-boxes, as the regulations imposed upon fishing mill dams would materially interfere with his milling power, and their abandonment alone will to some extent facilitate the ascent of the fish. Closing the fishing cribs, however, though a great benefit to the river, can only be considered as a partial remedy, and the erection of fish-ladders is required to render perfect any arrangement for improving the Lune. Above Skerton is Halton weir, which was used for fishing with cribs or boxes, but their use has for some time been discontinued, and the right to fish by such means has lapsed; the lower weir, we believe, so nearly monopolized the fish that it would not pay to attend to the fishing. Above the Halton weir is a mill dam, which is a formidable impediment to fish ascending. For thirty miles above these weirs there is an open uninterrupted river, containing ample spawning grounds; amongst its tributaries may be mentioned the Minning, which joins at Hornby with the Roeburn, and Hindburn, and the Greta, which joins about five miles above.

THE RIBBLE.

The estuary below Preston is common to the Ribble, Hodder, and Calder, which unite before they reach the tideway, and in this respect are to be considered as one. The estuary has been fished with draught nets and fixed engines; some of the latter having been introduced within the last seven or eight years by Scotchmen whom it would appear were invited to come there, and since commencing operations they have at different times extended and altered their positions, and taken salmon further to seaward than they were ever caught there before. Alterations have been made in the channel for the purpose of navigation, which have to some extent governed the modes of capture. The rights of fishing in the estuary appear to have been generally exercised by the proprietors of land on the shores, the public also fishing to a certain extent on common law right. Above the tideway the rights are private, and are solely exercised by the proprietors whose lands abut the rivers. The modes of fishing are by draught nets and angling. The lower portion of the Ribble is not obstructed by mill or fishing weirs, and has, therefore, not been exhausted to the same extent as other rivers less fortunately circumstanced, a feature which has greatly sustained it. The absence, too, of barriers has enabled the fish to ascend in sufficient numbers to make it worth while for the upper proprietors to protect them, and an association has existed for some years by whose exertions the Ribble and Hodder have been much benefited.

Up to Whalley the river is called the Big Ribble, where the Hodder and Calder unite with it, and above the junction it is called the Little Ribble. On the latter at Low Moor near Clitheroe there is a formidable mill weir. The mill takes the whole water of the river even at times of considerable freshes or ordinary floods, but the proprietor has been an active co-operator in the protection of the fish, and has very ingeniously constructed a passage at one side of his weir, which, when the mill is not working and when very high floods occur, enables the fish to ascend; the passage, however, requires improvement, as we think that heavy spawning fish would be beaten back by the force of water with which they would be met in endeavouring to ascend it. The proprietor expressed his willingness and even anxiety to make any improvement which may be pointed out to

him. The Hodder is considered the best angling water, particularly for morts and sprods, the local names for white or sea trout, mort being the full-grown fish, sprod the younger. The Calder is stated to be so polluted by dye and print works, that the fish in it have been nearly, if not totally destroyed. This destruction is of recent occurrence and has excited much dissatisfaction; but we think that the manufacturers, if they are willing to do so, may take measures by which it may be mitigated, if not entirely corrected. By calling attention to the subject means may be suggested by which the excessive pollution that has injured so many rivers may be avoided. The consideration indeed of this subject is of great importance, and extends far beyond the mere preservation of fish.

Some foul water from print works is allowed to flow into streams connected with the Little Ribble. We visited one called the Primrose Factory, near Whalley, and the proprietors expressed their desire to avoid doing injury, if reasonably within their power as regarded expense; but said they could not at present see their way in the matter.

TEIFI.

The Teifi is seventy miles long. The estuary is fished with draught nets, about sixteen in number; bag nets are said to have been used on the adjacent coast at Aberforth. A fixed net has been used near the bridge at Cardigan, and others in the vicinity, called Jackass nets. The fishery is public, no private right having to our knowledge been claimed or exercised. In the fresh water from Llechrhyd to Cenarth Bridge the river is fished with coracle nets; it was stated to the Commissioners in 1860, that there were about 300 coracles thus employed, which would represent as many men who claim that portion of the river as their own, grounding their right upon long and undisturbed usage. By means of a natural ledge of rock above Cenarth Bridge a salmon trap is used, for which rent is paid to the proprietor; above this the rights of fishing are exercised by the proprietors of the land, and we are not aware that the public have asserted any claim to them. The obstructions on the Teifi are few and not very formidable; the first is caused by rubbish thrown into the river from the slate quarries at Kilgerran, a short distance above Cardigan Bridge; many complaints have been made of this abuse, and the Admiralty have been applied to, as guardians of the navigation, to have the evil remedied, and a report was made by Captain Washington to that Board condemnatory of the practice; but it is still continued, and the impediment so caused is decidedly detrimental to the free passage of fish. The next obstructions are at Cenarth, and consist of the natural rock before mentioned, and a mill weir; the next, and last of any amount, is a mill weir at Newcastle Emlyn. These impediments are not great, and by the application of ladders would be easily corrected. The abuses of the Teifi have been very great. The close season heretofore fixed did not commence until the 3rd of November, and we believe that it was not observed. A system has prevailed of kippering or curing salmon in the latter part of the season, and the information we have received tends to show that salmon have been captured whenever they could be obtained for this purpose.

The report was signed by William J. Ffennell and Frederick Eden, inspectors of fisheries.

THE EXHIBITION OF 1862.

Report of the Commissioners of the Exhibition of 1862.

On the 14th February, 1862, a commission was issued by her Majesty the Queen to the Right Hon. the Earl Granville, Lord President of the Council, the Marquis of Chandos, and Messrs. Thomas Baring, Charles Wentworth Dilke, and Thomas Fairbairn, in which it was recited that the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, of which the Prince Consort was president, did, previously to the year 1851, establish and cause to be held, from time to time, exhibitions of the products of industry and art, which exhibitions resulted in or led to the holding of the exhibition of the Works of Industry of all Nations in the year 1851, and which last-named exhibition was attended with great success and public advantage; and that the said society, in order to promote the objects for which it was incorporated, was desirous that facilities should be afforded for holding, from time to time, international exhibitions of the products of industry and art; and that many of the members of that society and others were desirous that such an international exhibition should be holden in the metropolis in the year 1862, or so soon after as conveniently may be. That the same was approved of by her Majesty, and that a Royal charter of incorporation was granted to the said commissioners to conduct and manage the same, making the commissioners one body politic and corporate, capable of suing and being sued. By such charter, power was given to such commissioners to borrow sums not exceeding in the whole 250,000*l.*, to obtain a guarantee fund, and to enter into an arrangement with the commissioners for the Exhibition of 1861, for holding the exhibition on a portion of the estate of those commissioners at Kensington Gore, in accordance with the arrangements already made with them by the Society of Arts; and to expend the sum of 50,000*l.* on buildings of a permanent character adapted for such exhibitions to be given on a lease to the Society of Arts. Should a loss attend the said undertaking irrespective of the value of the permanent buildings, then the Society of Arts, with a view to obtain the lease of the same, according to the arrangement, should have the power to bear and sustain the loss, so as to enable the commissioners to pay all the remaining debts and liabilities of the corporation, including the guaranteed debt. But should the society not be willing to undertake the same, then, that the commissioners should sell the permanent buildings and discharge all the debts with the proceeds. Should the undertaking leave a profit, irrespective of the permanent buildings, such buildings shall be left standing for the Society of Arts, and the commissioners would pay, if so desired by the Society of Arts, a sum not exceeding 10,000*l.* to the commissioners of 1851, as a consideration for their reserving a site of sixteen acres for an exhibition to be held in 1872 on the lands belonging to such commissioners; and if any surplus profit should remain the same to be applied to such purposes connected with the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, as shall be determined by the guarantors at a meeting to be called for that purpose.

On the 20th April, 1863, the commissioners reported the result of their labours as follows:—

The remarkable success of the Great Exhibition of 1851, and the valuable information afforded by it as to the state of the manufacturing industry

of different nations at the time when it took place, made it obvious that a renewal of so important an undertaking would be called for at no distant date, for the purpose of testing the advance made in the industrial arts in the intervening period. Not only did the Society of Arts (to whose efforts, under the wise guidance and direction of their Royal president, the Exhibition of 1851 owed its origin), in their original application, address, in 1849, to her Majesty's Government, for the issue of a Royal commission for the conduct of that Exhibition, point out the importance of establishing similar exhibitions periodically, but their utility has for a long time past been recognized, and practically exemplified, in a neighbouring country, with the happiest results to industry. No real measure of the benefits resulting from the great experiment of 1851 could be taken without instituting the comparison which its repetition could alone afford. Positive evil might result from a single unrepeatable exhibition, in which the awards of juries had affixed that stamp of excellence to the articles exhibited, which other and more meritorious articles, subsequently produced, were not in a position to receive, in the absence of similar means of rewarding them.

The Society of Arts, therefore, in 1858 and 1859, turned their attention to the measures that would have to be taken with a view to the establishment of a second great International Exhibition in this country; and the council of that society, in the first instance, put themselves in communication, on the subject, with the commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851; a body which, on the one hand, owed its continued existence as a corporation to the success with which it had conducted the undertaking entrusted to it by the favour of her Majesty, and which, on the other hand, was the owner of a large estate purchased with the profits of that Exhibition, and on which it was supposed that an appropriate site could be found for a second International Exhibition.

The original proposal of the Society of Arts was that the second Great Exhibition should take place in 1861, or ten years subsequently to the first one, as it was considered by that body that no period was so well adapted as a decennial one for those purposes of comparison which successive exhibitions in the same country afford; whilst it was not likely that producers and manufacturers could be induced to make the great efforts required to enable them to compete on such occasions at shorter intervals than ten years.

The outbreak of the Italian War in the spring of 1859, however, rendered it expedient to postpone the further prosecution of the scheme at that moment; but on the restoration of peace, in the summer of the same year, the council of the society felt themselves once more in a position to move in the matter, although the year in which it was proposed to hold the Exhibition was necessarily changed from 1861 to 1862. They accordingly took steps to ascertain two important points, which the commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851 considered as indispensable preliminaries, viz., whether "the scheme of the proposed Exhibition met with the general sympathy and support of the public to an extent sufficient to warrant a reasonable confidence of success," and also whether "the necessary funds would be forthcoming for the purpose of defraying the expenses of the Exhibition, until those expenses were met by the receipts derivable from it."

It appeared to the Society of Arts that the necessary information on both those points could be best obtained by inviting subscriptions to an exhibition guarantee fund of not less than 250,000*l.*, it being thought that in no

way could the real wishes of the community be so well tested as by an appeal which threw upon the public the exclusive pecuniary risk of so vast an undertaking, from which, at the same time, no pecuniary advantage was to be derived by them. The appeal thus made by the society met with a success exceeding those expectations; and when they next addressed the commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851, in the month of June, 1860, upwards of 450 names had already been promised to the proposed guarantee fund, for a total amount exceeding 300,000*l*. At a subsequent period, the number of signatures increased to above 1100, and the amount subscribed to upwards of 450,000*l*. Reference was here made to the arrangements between the commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851 and the Society of Arts for a site for the Exhibition, and to measures taken for securing trustees, &c.

The formal guarantee deed had been duly executed to the extent of 250,000*l*. by the 15th of March, 1860; but it was eventually signed by 1157 subscribers, to the amount of 451,070*l*., and on the security of which the governor and the directors of the Bank of England agreed to advance us the sum of 250,000*l*. for the purposes of the Exhibition.

THE BUILDING.

The two important questions of the site to be occupied by the Exhibition, and the means of providing the requisite funds in anticipation of the receipts from the admission of visitors, were virtually settled, as we have already shown, before we agreed to undertake the management of the Exhibition. The main difficulty—viz., that of securing the erection of a suitable building, which should be ready at a sufficiently early date in the year 1862 for the reception of the objects to be exhibited, had to be dealt with at the very outset of our proceedings.

The arrangements that had been made by the Society of Arts with the commissioners of 1851 precluded us from entertaining the idea of erecting a building of precisely the same character as that which had been found to answer the requirements of the first Great Exhibition. Not only were pictures to be included in the Exhibition of 1862, but the charter, under which the Exhibition was to be conducted, pointed to the ultimate establishment of periodical Exhibitions, on the site that had been primarily secured for the purposes of that year.

Under these circumstances, and considering that the expenditure at regularly recurring intervals of sums ranging from 150,000*l*. to 200,000*l*. on the erection of temporary buildings, to be removed after they had answered the purposes of single exhibitions, appeared to be unjustifiable, we deemed it necessary to contemplate the erection of a building which should possess more of the elements of permanence than a mere structure of glass and iron; and which, if the results of the Exhibition were such as to justify the anticipations of its promoters, might be made available for future gatherings of a similar character.

We felt, moreover, that to enable us to secure the co-operation of the various patrons of art, to whom we should have to appeal for assistance in the formation of a collection of pictures, it would be necessary to satisfy them that the building, in which we proposed to exhibit their valuable property, would be of such a character as to prevent the possibility of damage being done to their contributions from the effects of our variable climate. We were advised that, to guard against all danger from this source, it was

essential, first of all, that the picture galleries should be solidly constructed in brick; and, secondly, with a view to their being thoroughly dried before the pictures were hung on the walls, that they should be roofed in by the end of November, 1861, at the latest—*i. e.*, in less than ten months from the date at which our charter was issued.

We were fully satisfied, as experience has since proved, of the possibility of finding contractors in this country who would execute all the required works within the time available; but to enable them to do so, it was necessary that the plans for the building should be issued at an early date. It naturally occurred to us that we should endeavour to obtain such plans by public competition; but the experience of 1851 was not encouraging on this point. On referring to the first report of the commissioners of 1851, we found that the Building Committee was constituted in the month of January, 1850; that they recommended the issue of an invitation to architects, calling on them to offer their suggestions for the general arrangements of the buildings and premises required for the Exhibition; that, though less than a month was allowed for the preparation of such plans, no fewer than 233 designs and specifications were sent in, none of which, however, were suitable for the purpose; that the committee, numbering amongst its members several most eminent architects and engineers, then prepared a plan, which, though open to many grave objections, was accepted under the pressure of time; that this plan, however, was at once set aside on the appearance of a design submitted to the commissioners from an unprofessional source; and that, though estimates for carrying out this design were presented within a few days after its first conception, it was not till the 26th of July, or six months after the date of the nomination of the committee, that the tender of the contractors for the erection of the building in which the Exhibition was eventually held was adopted by the commissioners.

So serious a delay might not have again occurred, but, on a careful consideration of all the circumstances, we came to the conclusion that it would be impossible to carry out the design of the Exhibition as originally submitted to us, and to open it in the year 1862, if it were necessary to have recourse to a general competition.

While we were considering how far it would be possible to obtain designs from a select list of competitors, it was reported to us that there was already in existence a plan of a building, adapted for a great exhibition of works of art and industry, which had been prepared with special reference to the particular site that had been granted for the Exhibition of 1862. We were informed that the author of this plan, Captain Fowke, R.E., an officer of skill and experience in the art of construction, who had been employed by her Majesty's Government in the British department of the Paris Exhibition of 1855, had framed it so as to meet the many practical defects which experience had shown to exist in the buildings both in Hyde Park and the Champs Elysées.

On examining Captain Fowke's plan we found that it was in many respects not only well adapted for the purpose for which we should require it, but also for the uses to which the building might hereafter be turned, in the event of its being left permanently on the site. Its principal features, moreover, were of a striking character, and of themselves likely to form an attractive part of the Exhibition.

Having received a favourable report from the professional members of

our building committee, whom we consulted as to the construction of the main features of the design, and the possibility of its being completed early in 1862, we next, as required by the conditions on which the site was granted submitted the plan to the commissioners of 1851, by whom, after some alterations, it was approved.

Encouraged by the favourable opinion of that body, which was of value no less on account of their great experience, than from the interest which they naturally took in seeing that any building to be erected, with a possibility of remaining permanently on their property, should be of a suitable character, we determined to accept Captain Fowke's design, and to take such steps as our position at the time allowed with a view to its ultimate and formal adoption.

We accordingly submitted it to the competition of ten eminent contractors, four of whom took out the quantities; while three tenders (one a joint one from two of the contractors invited) were sent in on the day named in the invitation. All of these tenders, however, were found to be greatly in excess of the amount which we could prudently anticipate being able to spend, with a due regard to the interests of the guarantors. We, therefore, remitted the design for consideration to Captain Fowke and the building committee, who, after communicating with the contractors (Mr. Kelk and Messrs. Lucas, Brothers), whose joint tender had, in the first instance, been the lowest which we received, submitted a modified plan capable of being carried out at a greatly reduced cost, according to a tender which the committee, at the same time, recommended for our acceptance. The leading feature of the original design, which, to our great regret, it was found necessary to omit on account of its cost, was a hall, 500 feet long, 250 feet wide, and 210 feet high. This hall, the erection of which would in itself have been a striking proof of the progress of the arts of construction since 1851, was to have been placed behind the main entrance to the picture galleries from Cromwell Road.

All the negotiations up to this point had been merely provisional, having been carried on in anticipation of the issue of our charter, as we felt that to delay taking any steps in the matter till we were legally constituted, would not only greatly enhance the cost of the building, but would imperil its completion by the appointed time. We were now, however, in a position to accept the tender presented to us by the building committee; and a notice to that effect was given to Messrs. Kelk and Lucas on the 23rd of February, 1861, although the contract itself was not actually signed till the 26th of March following.

The laying out of the ground commenced on the 9th of March, 1861; in the first week of April the work of the building was actually begun; and on the 12th of February, 1862, the day originally stipulated in the contract, the building was handed over to us virtually ready for occupation; although much of the decoration was still unfinished, and some of the details remained to be completed.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

We were able to inform the "Organization Committee," at its first meeting, that we proposed to adopt, with some modifications, the same classification of this department as in 1851, viz., into the three great sections of Raw Materials, Machinery, and Manufactures. With this information before them, and having referred to the success of the different methods of organization adopted in

1851 and 1855, the committee submitted to us a series of recommendations, in general accordance with which we took the following steps. We issued, in the first series of our decisions, published in the *London Gazette* of Friday, the 29th day of March, 1861, a notice to all classes of producers in the United Kingdom, inviting them to send in applications for space; and we addressed a separate and individual communication to the same effect to each of the 9,000 British exhibitors whose names appear in the catalogues of the previous Exhibitions at London in 1851, and at Paris in 1855.

We next took measures for the formation of committees of various kinds throughout the country. Some of these committees were of a local character, and formed to represent the interests of intending exhibitors in particular towns or districts. These were organized, at our request, by the mayors, provosts, or other chief municipal authorities, acting in concert with the presidents of chambers of commerce, where such bodies existed, and in every case with the leading manufacturers and representatives of the various industries of the town or district.

Of such committees, no fewer than 103 (as enumerated in appendix I.) were formed at the great centres of industry throughout the kingdom.

Their duties were mainly as follows, viz. :—

1. To act as the channels of communication between ourselves and exhibitors, and to give publicity in their districts to such information as might be useful to intending exhibitors and others interested in the Exhibition.

2. To encourage the production of articles suited for exhibition.

3. To examine the lists of proposed exhibitors, in order to see that they fairly represented the industries of the district, and that the principal producers appeared in them.

4. To enter into communication with the leading manufacturers who had not sent in any demands for space, with the view of urging them to do so at an early date; and to furnish proper forms of application, with which they were supplied for the purpose.

5. To examine the lists of applicants, with the view of limiting the demands of those exhibitors who had formed extravagant ideas of the worth of their goods, and of the space they should occupy.

6. In cases where applicants for space made demands under more than one class to ascertain the exact amount of space they required in each class.

7. At a somewhat later date, to superintend, in accordance with such general regulations as were laid down, the selection or rejection of articles proposed for exhibition, and the allotment of space to such as were declared admissible.

8. To take steps for the purpose of encouraging a desire to visit the Exhibition, and for the systematic organization of such visits by all classes of the community.

Reference was then made to the formation of metropolitan or trade committees and of national or class committees, in contradistinction to those which represented interests of a local character. Ten of these committees were constituted in connection respectively with the mining, chemical, machinery, agricultural, military, naval, philosophical, photographic, surgical, and educational classes of the Exhibition.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND COLONIES.

With the view of ascertaining the extent to which foreign countries would be represented in the Exhibition, and of establishing in each such country a

central authority with whom we should communicate, we directed a letter to be written to Earl Russell, the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, requesting him to give notice of the issue of our charter to Foreign Powers, and begging that we might be put in communication with such bodies or persons, in their respective dominions, as would best represent the interests of those who were likely to take part in the undertaking. Similar communications were addressed to the Secretaries of State for India and the Colonies.

To these applications we received prompt replies, with assurances of the great interest that was felt in the success of the Exhibition, not only by Foreign Governments themselves, but by all classes that were likely to enter into a friendly rivalry with the people of this country. Commissions were nominated, and executive committees organized, in no fewer than forty foreign countries, in all the provinces of India, and in twenty-nine of the principal dependencies of the British Crown.

In 1851, the benefits of being represented at international exhibitions were not well understood by the colonies, and many of them were not in a position to contribute. The advantages of publicity were more understood as local exhibitions began to spread. Although few colonies took part in the Paris Exhibition, yet considerable outlay was gone to by those which did, and commensurate benefits were received by the continental trade thus stimulated in Australian and South African wools, Canadian timber, and West Indian minor products.

A much longer notice was given to the colonies on the occasion of the recent Exhibition, and matured and timely correspondence led to a more adequate representations of their industries and resources. The position of all had much improved in the eleven years since 1851, and new colonies had been formed and new industries established. The various Colonial Governments responded promptly to the appeal made to them, and voted, in most cases, large sums towards the collection, transmission, and adequate representation of their colonial resources. Influential local committees were formed, who devoted themselves continuously and energetically to the duties assigned to them; and the result was a display of British colonial industry and wealth, which, in raw materials, and even in fine arts and manufactures, surprised visitors, especially those from the Continent. The horizontal space occupied scarcely furnishes a true criterion of the extent of the contributions, because the vertical space was greatly extended by means of screens and galleries available for display.

The arrangement and general duties of supervision and official representation were assigned, by the different Colonial Governments, to gentlemen of ability and high position, most of whom came to this country for the purpose; and their long and arduous duties were discharged in a manner which calls for our warmest thanks. The organization and general superintendence of the department was undertaken, at our request, by Dr. Lindley, whose experience, gained in a similar position in 1851, was of the greatest possible value. The successful results of his labours were fully appreciated, no less by ourselves and the various Colonial Commissioners than by his Grace the Secretary of State for the Colonies, who, from the first, evinced great interest in this department, and addressed a gratifying letter to Dr. Lindley on the occasion of a formal visit which he paid to the Exhibition. The organization of the Indian department was entrusted, by the Secretary of State for India, to Dr. Forbes Watson, reporter on the products of that country. We have to tender our best thanks to that gentleman for the zeal

with which he discharged the duties devolving upon him in connection with the interesting display which, under his advice, and by his exertions, was collected and arranged in a very effective manner. We have specially to thank him for the full and instructive catalogue of the Indian collection, a work which will be found of value to all those who are interested in the development of the industrial resources of her Majesty's eastern dominions.

FINE ART DEPARTMENT.

Our charter of incorporation having declared that the International Exhibition of 1862 was to embrace "the products of industry and art of all nations," it became necessary to determine what arrangements should be made for ensuring an adequate representation of the genius and skill of the artists, both living and deceased, of our own and foreign countries, on this the first occasion of such a display in England.

To the thirty-six classes, therefore, into which the industrial department was divided, we added *Section IV.—Modern Fine Arts.*—Class 37. Architecture. Class 38. Paintings in oil and water colours, and drawings; with a sub-class, 38A. Art designs for manufactures. Class 39. Sculpture, models, die-sinking, and intaglios. Class 40. Etchings and engravings.

Of the total space available for exhibition we reserved, as in the industrial department, one half for the representation of the art of this country and her dependencies, assigning the other half to foreign countries. The object of the exhibition being to illustrate the progress and present condition of modern art, we deemed it advisable to leave each foreign country to decide the period of art which in its own case would best attain that end. We announced at the same time that the subdivision of the foreign half of the galleries would be made after consideration of the demands received from the commissioners of the countries proposing to exhibit in this department; but that the arrangement of the works within the space allotted to each country would be entirely under the control of its accredited representatives, subject only to the necessary general regulations.

We referred the whole question of the organization of the British division of this department, as we have already mentioned, to a committee of the most competent authorities to be found in the kingdom, and our decisions, mainly founded on the recommendations of this general committee, were as follows:—"111. The exhibition of British art in this section will include the works of artists alive on or subsequent to the 1st of May, 1762.* 112. It is not proposed to award prizes in this section. 113. Prices will not be allowed to be affixed to any works of art exhibited in this section." "118. The space at the disposal of her Majesty's commissioners for the display of British art being limited, and it being at the same time desirable to bring together as careful and perfect an illustration as possible, a selection of the works to be exhibited will be indispensable. 119. The selection of exhibitors, the space and number of works to be allowed to each, and the arrangement of them will be intrusted to committees to be nominated by her Majesty's commissioners. 120. In the case of living artists, her Majesty's commissioners would desire to consult the wishes of the

* In Austria, Denmark, Italy, and Russia (and to some extent in Spain), a similar plan was adopted. In other schools only the works of living or of lately deceased artists were admitted. In France the limitation was still narrower; in regard to living artists, to works executed since 1850, and in regard to dead masters, to artists born since 1790, and pictures painted since 1840.

artists themselves as to the particular works by which they would prefer to be represented. The selection of works so made by the artists will not necessarily be binding upon her Majesty's commissioners, but in no case will any work by a living artist be exhibited against his wish, if expressed in writing, and delivered to the commissioners on or before the 31st of March, 1862." References was here made to the regulations for the introduction of works of living artists only, and to the precautions used in receiving and arranging the pictures.

These class committees held numerous meetings during the summer and autumn of 1861, and it would be impossible for us to speak too warmly of the care and attention which they devoted, in the midst of other duties, to the representation of their respective branches of art.

The course adopted in each of the classes having been as nearly as possible the same, it would seem unnecessary to do more than briefly record what was done in one of them, viz., Class 38. (Paintings and drawings.)

The general scheme is pointed out in decisions Nos. 119, 120, in so far as it regards living artists, with the important addition that they were invited to name only such of their works as had already been exhibited. It was also decided that all applicants for space who had not been invited to take part in the exhibition should be required to submit to the committee the specimens of their art which they proposed to exhibit. But a considerable number of the pictures required for exhibition, and not a few of the most important contributions to the other classes, were the productions of deceased artists, and much time and pains had to be expended in ascertaining where these works were, in inspecting collections in different parts of the kingdom, and in making application to the proprietors for the loan of such of their treasures as we were advised to endeavour to obtain.

That, with few exceptions, the noblemen, gentlemen, and public bodies to whom we applied for assistance, should have shown so much readiness to place their choice works at our disposal, without any guarantee for their safety, beyond an assurance that every precaution would be taken for their care and preservation, is certainly in a large measure to be attributed to the noble liberality with which her Majesty was graciously pleased to allow us, without any limitation upon our demands, to draw upon the royal collections, an example of which we gratefully recognize the important influence.

As a rule, we felt that in a year when a large number of foreigners would visit the metropolis it was undesirable to deprive our annual exhibitions, and national institutions, of their attractions, in order to render more complete the display of British art in the galleries of the Exhibition; but in several instances it was found impossible to adhere to this rule, and particularly in the case of Hogarth's works, the most important of which are in public collections; indeed we thought it so necessary that this great painter should have the fullest possible representation that we had recourse to parliament, for the powers believed to be required for obtaining the loan of some of his most celebrated pictures from the trustees of Sir John Soane's Museum.

In regard to the works of living artists, the rule that they should have been previously exhibited was, with hardly an exception, strictly observed; and we have every reason to believe that this was no impediment to their adequate and honourable representation in our galleries.

As the time approached for collecting and forwarding the works of art

to the building we were anxious to secure three principal points :—1. The convenience and confidence of proprietors. 2. The safety of the works themselves. 3. Their arrival in sufficient time to enable the different committees to complete their arrangements before the 1st of May. In certain districts, where the number of proprietors seemed to render this course expedient, agents were appointed to collect, pack, and transmit the paintings placed at our disposal; but it was invariably left to the proprietor's option to make the necessary arrangements for the transmission of his contributions, in accordance with certain printed instructions with which we furnished him. The expenses were in all cases defrayed by us. With regard to the other classes, as their contents (with the exception of some pieces of sculpture) were not so widely scattered, it was not necessary to employ any special agencies.

In closing this part of our report, we cannot refrain from expressing our belief that this, the first International Exhibition of art undertaken in England, will be productive of very beneficial results.

That the galleries were one of the chief attractions of the Exhibition none can doubt who mixed in the crowds that thronged them, often to inconvenience. And this, it may be remarked, was not the case only on days when the charges for admission were highest, and when the more educated classes may chiefly be supposed to have been present.

Nor, can we doubt, that by a large number of those who visited the galleries, they will be remembered, not merely as a great sight or an agreeable lounge, but as the place where they increased their knowledge, improved their taste, and stored up recollections of much that is beautiful and attractive in the domain of art. The fame of great masters, both dead and living, was confirmed and strengthened; the merits of others, hitherto comparatively overlooked, were recognized; and the anticipation is a reasonable one, that to the place their works so worthily occupied in the Exhibition, and the admiring notice they received, some of our younger and less known artists, may hereafter ascribe much of their distinction and success. While Englishmen surveyed the works of their own countrymen with feelings of justifiable pride and satisfaction, they fully appreciated the varied excellences of the foreign schools, and readily acknowledged the honourable rivalry maintained by artists, who, while differing from us in habits, and language, are animated by a love of art as great as our own, and ennobled by equal success in its exercise. To our foreign visitors, and particularly to those among them who were able to form a competent judgment, the display of British art must have revealed a power and variety they had not hitherto had the opportunity of realizing; and if we have learnt better to appreciate the productions of continental schools, and to satisfy ourselves by careful comparison that there is room both for us to take a lesson and for them to profit by our example, it cannot be doubted that foreign artists have derived similar conclusions from their examination of the British gallery.

DIVISION OF SPACE.

The total area of the Exhibition building was 1,291,827 square feet; * of this space 147,700 square feet were taken up by refreshment rooms, offices, entrances, and staircases, leaving 1,144,127 feet available for exhibiting

* The total area roofed in was 988,000 square feet. The building in 1851 covered 799,000 square feet; the Paris building 953,000 square feet, of which 600,000 were in the annexes.

purposes. This space was obtained in the different buildings of the Exhibition in the following proportions, namely:—*MAIN BUILDING.*—*Ground Floor.*—Nave and transept, 178,450 square feet; glass courts, 178,887; under galleries, 203,160; south horticultural arcade, 32,700; under south picture galleries, 49,300; offices, lobbies, &c., 27,600; Cromwell Road entrance and staircase, 17,300. *Gallery Floor.*—Galleries, 208,360; refreshment rooms, 27,800. *Picture Galleries.*—South picture gallery and staircase, 63,920; east and west picture galleries, 27,000. *Annexes.*—Western or machinery annexe, 182,500; eastern annexe (covered space), 94,850. Total, 1,291,827. In dividing this space, the rule now generally recognized of giving to the country holding the Exhibition one-half of the net space, was adhered to, so far as the main building and picture galleries were concerned, the western half being given to foreign manufactures and fine arts, and the eastern half to the productions of Great Britain and her dependencies.

At the time when the original allotments of space were made to foreign nations, the erection of the eastern annexe had not been contemplated, but at a later date the pressure for more space, both from abroad and from our home manufacturers, became so great, that it was determined to increase the exhibiting space by the construction of a supplementary building, afterwards known as the Eastern Annexe. The open court in the centre of this building, covering an area of 35,000 square feet, was also made available for exhibiting purposes, and was allotted to both foreign and British exhibitors for the display of such articles as would not be injured by exposure to the atmosphere.

Having decided on the total amount of space to be given for the display of foreign productions, the next step was to divide it among the various countries that had expressed their intention of exhibiting, in such proportion as would fairly represent the magnitude of the countries and the commercial importance of their various industries, due consideration being given to their geographical positions, and the difficulties of transport to this country. A notification of the space thus allotted, both in the fine art and industrial sections of the Exhibition, together with a plan of its form and position in the building, was forwarded to each of the foreign commissions, the subdivision of such space among intending exhibitors being left entirely to themselves. The rule laid down in 1851, that no foreign goods should be admitted for exhibition without the sanction of the commission of the nation to which the exhibitor belonged, was adopted on this occasion. The division of space among our dependencies was conducted on the same principle as that to foreign countries, due regard being paid to the importance and variety of the natural productions, which, with few exceptions, form the leading features in the contributions from our colonies. The allotments to foreign nations and the colonies having been completed, we next proceeded to divide the remaining space among the British exhibitors.

The number of demands sent in amounted to upwards of 8000, and the accommodation applied for to 963,750 square feet of horizontal (floor or counter) space. The space thus asked being many times greater than that at our disposal, it became necessary to determine in what manner we could reduce the space demanded within the available limits.

We therefore ascertained the amount of space that had been applied for by the exhibitors in each class; and with this information to guide us (which was useful as showing the directions in which the industry of the

country was developing itself) after striking out or greatly reducing some extravagant, and, in several instances, preposterous demands, we determined the amount of space that could be assigned to each class, according to its importance, and the nature of the objects to be exhibited in it; this space, divided by the number of exhibitors in the class, gave the average allotment to each applicant in that class.

We then placed at the disposal of each of the various national, local, and trade committees, an amount of space corresponding to the number of the exhibitors which they respectively represented; and we requested each committee to investigate the demands of its own exhibitors with a view to such a treatment of them as would do credit to the present state of national or local industry, and bring them within the limits of the space assigned to the committee.

The committees were requested to report to us by the 1st December, 1861, their recommendations as to the amount of space (if any) to be assigned to each of the applicants, but to abstain from making those recommendations public till they had been considered and confirmed. It was our wish not to interfere with the action of the committees, in this or any other part of their duties, but, on examining the returns of proposed allotments, we found that very different views had been taken by different committees, some of which wished to assign space to every exhibitor who had applied for it, without regard to the nature of his claims (thereby reducing the amount of space that could be given to the exhibitors of real merit), while others had exercised a wise discretion in the selection of exhibitors, or of objects likely to do credit to our national industry.

It, therefore, became necessary for us to institute, with the assistance of the superintendents, a final revision of the proceedings of the different committees, with the view of rectifying some glaring discrepancies which had attracted our attention, before the amount of space eventually awarded was communicated by us to every exhibitor whose claim was admitted.

The exact amount of space which had been given to the exhibitors in each class having been calculated, a ground plan of the general arrangement was prepared, and a plan of the portion assigned to each class given to the class superintendent, whose duty it was to sub-divide the space among the committee, to whom they furnished plans of the portions allotted to them, such space being again sub-divided by the committees amongst the individual exhibitors, according to the amount previously determined. The names of the exhibitors, and the size of their allotments, were marked by the committees on the plans, which were then returned to us. From these returns were prepared a general plan of the Exhibition, showing the exact space and situation in the building of every British exhibitor's allotment. This plan was subsequently traced on the floor of the Exhibition building. Finally, every exhibitor was supplied with a plan of his allotment, showing the direction of the passages, the length and width of the space, and the height to which he might carry his fittings or cases.

We had intended, while preserving as much as possible the national features of the groups of objects contributed by each country, to adopt the principle of local classification in the building, which was, to a certain extent, successfully carried out at Paris; and, as a general rule, to keep distinct each of the four great sections of the Exhibition. That is to say, we wished to place all the classes of articles exhibited in the section of raw produce in one division of the building; classes relating to machinery

in a second division; manufactures in a third; and the section of fine arts in a distinct and special building.

Reception of Goods.—The day fixed for the commencement of the reception of articles was the 14th of February, 1862, and the first packages that arrived were received on the 15th of that month. All packages on delivery at the building were numbered in rotation, and entered in a register, with the names of the senders, the class to which they belonged, and the date of their arrival; they were then deposited in the Exhibition as near as practicable to the situation allotted to receive them.

Summary of the Receipts of British and Foreign Goods.—British packages, 38,123; articles not packed, 12,994; foreign packages, 28,779: total, 79,896. Pieces of fittings and cases consisting of wood, iron, and glass: English, 41,635; foreign, 4,113: total, 45,748.*

In addition to the above, about 20,000 bricks, 50 bags of cement, and several loads of sand and mortar, for foundations, came in on the British side.

The extraordinary increase in the number and weight of the packages over previous exhibitions is mainly to be attributed, in the first place, to the more commercial character of the display on this occasion, the goods being (as a rule) much crowded on the counters, and even stored away underneath them; and secondly, to the advance made in the production of machine tools, particularly those used in the working of metal for marine and military purposes.

THE EXHIBITION.

The Exhibition was opened on the 1st of May, 1862, agreeably to the original announcement made in the month of March, 1861.

The inaugural ceremony, owing to the grievous affliction which had so recently fallen upon her Majesty and the whole people of this realm, lacked that crowning proof of her Majesty's approval, to which we had so fondly looked forward, in her gracious presence on the occasion, as the highest reward of our labours. But we have to tender to her Majesty our most dutiful acknowledgments for the interest which, in the midst of her great sorrow, her Majesty displayed in the proceedings of a day which must have revived so many painful, though brilliant, memories, by making known her wish that the opening of the Exhibition should bear, as much as possible, the character of a national ceremony, and by appointing H.R.H. the Duke of Cambridge, K.G., his Grace the (late) Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord High Chancellor, the Earl Derby, K.G., the Lord Chamberlain, Viscount Palmerston, K.G., G.C.B., and the Speaker of the House of Commons to be her representatives to conduct it in her name.

In the presence of H.R.H. the Crown Prince of Prussia, who, with H.R.H. Prince Oscar of Sweden, came to England for the purpose of taking part in the ceremony, we were happy to recognize a cordial deference to the wishes of her Majesty, as well as a tribute of respectful affection to the memory of his illustrious father-in-law.

It had been originally announced by the Society of Arts to be the intention of the promoters of the Exhibition that music, as well as painting and her sister Arts, should form a prominent feature in the arrangements for the year.

* The following is the return for 1851:—British packages, 16,305; articles not packed, 3757; foreign and colonial packages, 12,550: total, 32,612. The heaviest piece of machinery received in 1851 weighed 9 tons; in 1862, one piece weighed 35 tons, and a large number weighed from 12 to 20 tons each.

In the early stage of our inquiries we accordingly paid particular attention to the subject, and put ourselves in communication with Mr. Costa, by whose advice we resolved to be guided in our musical arrangements. The great hall, which formed part of the first design for the building, was intended to be made available for this branch of the original scheme. But we found that it would be impossible, without sacrificing more valuable exhibiting space than our site would allow, to make the special preparations required by any attempt to illustrate the present state of musical art among the different nations of the world, on a scale worthy of the occasion. The overpowering pressure upon the accommodation which we were able to give to the industrial department eventually satisfied us that we had arrived at a correct conclusion on this point.

Having abandoned the idea of introducing a general Exhibition of music throughout the Exhibition, we resolved to make music a special feature upon the occasion of the great ceremonials; and for that of the opening day, at the suggestion of Mr. H. F. Chorley, we invited the assistance of Professor Sterndale Bennett, M. Auber, M. Meyerbeer, and Signor Rossini, as representatives respectively of England, France, Germany, and Italy. We requested Dr. Bennett to compose a chorale, the words of which the Poet Laureate was good enough to undertake to write for the occasion. M. Auber was asked to supply a march for wind instruments, M. Meyerbeer an anthem, and Signor Rossini a triumphal military march. Our best thanks are due to these eminent composers for the cordial manner in which they received our application, M. Meyerbeer merely requesting that he might be permitted to furnish us with an overture, instead of an anthem. We feel sure that no one who was present at the opening of the Exhibition, or who has since heard the three works which were produced for the first time on that occasion, the great merits of which have led to their frequent repetition in all parts of the country, will be disposed to question the satisfaction which we felt at the result of our efforts in this matter. Nor may we omit to express our obligation to the Poet Laureate for the pure and noble song which he composed in honour of the day.* We are glad to

* ODE BY ALFRED TENNYSON, POET LAUREATE.

UPLIFT a thousand voices full and sweet,
In this wide hall with earth's invention stored,
And praise th' invisible universal Lord,
Who lets once more in peace the nations meet,
Where science, art, and labour have outpour'd
Their myriad horns of plenty at our feet.

O, silent father of our kings to be,
Mourn'd in this golden hour of jubilee,
For this, for all, we weep our thanks to thee!

The world-compelling plan was thine,
And, lo! the long laborious miles
Of palace; lo! the giant aisles,
Rich in model and design;
Harvest-tool and husbandry,
Loom and wheel and engin'ry,
Secrets of the sullen mine,
Steel and gold, and corn and wine,
Fabric rough, or fairy fine,
Sunny tokens of the Line,
Polar marvels, and a feast
Of wonder, out of west and east,
And shapes and hues of art divine;

think that his ode has not passed away with the pageant which called it forth, but that it will take an abiding place among the highest efforts of his muse.

We regret that the music of Italy was without a representative. Our first application, as we have said, was made to Signor Rossini, whose advanced age, however, obliged him to decline acceding to our request. We next, on the 3rd of July, 1861, applied to Signor Verdi, who after some hesitation, caused by his numerous previous engagements, undertook to write a march for the occasion, although he stated that there would be a difficulty as to its transmission to this country by the 1st of February, 1862,* the date which we had been advised to appoint for the purpose. Signor Verdi was thereupon informed that we were "willing to leave it in his own hands to fix the time at which he would be able to send the music of the march, in the full confidence that it would reach us in ample time for all the requisite preliminary arrangements." This was in August, 1861. Nothing further was heard of the matter till the beginning of March, 1862, when Signor Verdi, in a letter addressed to Mr. Costa, who had undertaken at our request the direction of the musical arrangements for the 1st of May, proposed to contribute an overture instead of a march. To this change we agreed; but on the 19th of March, within six weeks of the day fixed for the opening of the Exhibition, we received a letter from Signor Verdi, in which he expressed his wish to substitute for the overture a cantata with Italian words, the solo part of which would be executed by Signor Tamberlik. This proposal we were advised to decline, not only on account of the size of the building, in which a solo must have been lost, but also on account of the nature and great scale of the musical arrangements which we had already made. It was necessary that the music should be engraved and distributed to all parts of England, as the chorus, consisting of 2,200 (English) voices, selected from every district of the country, could only arrive in London on the day before the opening, in time for one rehearsal, and the music had therefore to be sent to them some time beforehand for study.

All of beauty, all of use,
That one fair planet can produce,
Brought from under every star,
Blown from over every main,
And mixt, as life is mixt with pain,
The works of peace with works of war,

And is the goal so far away?
Far, how far, no man can say,
Let us have our dream to-day,

O ye, the wise who think, the wise who reign,
From growing commerce loose her latest chain,
And let the fair white-winged peace-maker fly,
To happy havens under all the sky,
And mix the seasons and the golden hours,
Till each man finds his own in all men's good,
And all men work in noble brotherhood,
Breaking their mailed fleets and armed towers,
And ruling by obeying nature's powers,

And gathering all the fruits of peace and crown'd with all her flowers.

* This date was named in order to secure that the music should be correctly engraved and distributed in sufficient time for its perfect mastery by the 400 performers who were chosen from all parts of the country, to form the most efficient orchestra which England could produce.

This, as well as the necessity of our having the orchestral music engraved and circulated through the country, was explained to Signor Verdi, who finally proposed to come to England ten days before the Exhibition was opened, to compose the march which he had originally (in August, 1861) undertaken to furnish. To this proposal, we were, of course, unable to accede, as it would have been impossible, in the limited time that remained for the purpose, to secure that Signor Verdi's work should be performed in a manner worthy either of his high reputation, or of the efforts which had been made by Mr. Costa to organize a performance that would be creditable to this country, and to his own great skill as a musical director. Our endeavours to obtain a representation of the music of Italy in this international display thus failed.

For the success of the musical part of the opening ceremony we desire specially to tender our thanks to Mr. Costa.

The second ceremonial in the course of the Exhibition, on the occasion of the declaration of the awards that had been made by the international juries, took place on the 11th of July, and was held partly in the building itself, and partly in the Horticultural Gardens, which, by arrangements made with the Horticultural Society, were thrown open on that day to the visitors to the Exhibition. The order of the proceedings on that occasion is detailed in the official programme of the day, which we have appended to this report.

In the unavoidable absence of her Majesty, the awards of the juries were presented to an international representative body of royal and distinguished personages, specially named by the various nations taking part in the Exhibition. These awards were subsequently delivered by H.R.H. the Duke of Cambridge, who represented her Majesty on this occasion, to the colonial commissioners, and to the various national, local, and trade committees, on behalf of the exhibitors of this country; and to each of the foreign commissions by the special representative named by its own Government.

The readiness with which the Governments of foreign countries responded to the invitation to nominate representatives, which was addressed to them, at our request, by the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, was highly appreciated not only by ourselves, but by all the people of this country.

We proposed to hold a third ceremonial after the building was cleared of goods, at which his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales graciously undertook to distribute the medals and certificates of honourable mention to the successful exhibitors. Although circumstances led us to abandon this idea, our most grateful acknowledgments are not the less due to the Prince of Wales for the readiness with which he complied with our request, and for the interest which his Royal Highness thereby evinced in the success of an enterprise which owed its origin to his illustrious and distinguished father. On the occasion of the two ceremonials which did take place, and indeed throughout the whole course of our proceedings, we received the most efficient and zealous assistance from Mr. Henry Cole, C.B., and the officers of the South Kensington Museum, whose experience in similar undertakings rendered their services to the Exhibition of very great value, and call for our cordial thanks.

With the exception of the two ceremonials the public life of the Exhibition flowed on uninterruptedly for a period of 159 days, *i. e.*, till the 1st of November, when the Exhibition was virtually closed. The building, however, was kept open for the admission of the public for another fortnight

after that date, during which period exhibitors were allowed to sell their goods, and purchasers to take away with them such of those goods as could be removed by hand.

This arrangement was regarded as a great concession, more especially by the foreign exhibitors; and was found materially to facilitate the eventual removal of the goods from the building, which was effected very rapidly.

The total number of visits paid to the Exhibition was 6,211,103; the average number of visitors present on each day, 36,328; and the greatest number on any one day, viz., the 30th of October, 67,891.

It is certain that but for the unfortunate absence of the Court, and the distress in the North of England, these numbers would in each case have been very considerably larger.

Piracy of Inventions and Designs.—Shortly after the grant of our charter had been made known abroad, we received communications from the Governments of several Continental States, to the effect that many foreigners who were anxious to take part in the Exhibition were likely to be deterred from doing so, by the requirements of the laws of this country affecting the registration of designs and the issue of letters patent for inventions. These laws, though considerably modified of late years, still impose upon persons who desire to obtain protection against piracy the necessity of observing formalities of a troublesome, and in the case of patents, of a somewhat costly character, while no power of dispensing, even under exceptional circumstances, with the payment of the ordinary fees is vested in any department of the State. It was pointed out that on the occasion of the Exhibition of 1851, special facilities for obtaining, without any cost, protection against piracy, whether of invention or design, were conceded to exhibitors by Parliament, on the application of her Majesty's Government, and that similar privileges were granted by an Imperial decree to the exhibitors at Paris in 1855. The precedents of these two Exhibitions, were, accordingly, cited by foreign Governments as justifying the confident expectation that the same liberal policy would be followed in 1862; and the records of the first Exhibition were appealed to, as showing that the royal commissioners were of opinion that the experiment then tried in this matter was "beneficial, not only to the Exhibition itself, but also to invention and design generally."

We were assisted in examining the question thus brought before us by Mr. Le Neve Foster, who had superintended the working of the Act passed in 1851, and he made a report to us on the subject of the present position of the patent and registration laws.*

* REPORT FROM MR. PETER LE NEVE FOSTER UPON THE PATENT AND REGISTRATION LAWS.

*Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce,
Adelphi, London, W.C., 16th April, 1861.*

SIR,

In reply to your letter of the 22nd of March, I beg to hand in, for the information of the Commissioners for the Exhibition of 1862, a short report, as requested, on the condition and working of the Patent and Registration Laws, as affecting exhibitors of new inventions and designs.

1. As regards the protection afforded by letters patent for inventions.

In and previous to 1851 the laws relating to letters patent were in a very unsatisfactory state, being cumbrous in their machinery, and involving the inventor in a heavy cost to obtain protection for his invention, before he could exhibit it to the public. The cost of a patent for the United Kingdom and colonies then amounted in fees to about 300*l*. This was practically a prohibition to many exhibitors, who could not exhibit without being first protected by a patent, which they had neither the means to pay for, nor perhaps did the article warrant such an expenditure.

To avoid this difficulty a special Act of Parliament was passed early in the session of 1851,

Mr. Foster's opinion was, that there was "no such need of any special legislation in favour of exhibitors of new inventions in 1862 as there was in 1851;" but the announcement of a decision to that effect was followed by renewed remonstrances from foreign powers. We, therefore, put ourselves

intituled "The Protection of Inventions Act," under the provisions of which an inventor, by lodging a short specification descriptive of his invention to the satisfaction of the Attorney-General, and receiving a certificate which he registered at the Designs Office, received a protection which enabled him to exhibit his invention in Hyde Park, without such exhibition being deemed a publication which would invalidate a subsequent patent if applied for within a period limited by the Act.

This privilege was obtained without payment of any fee whatever, and was taken advantage of by upwards of 600 exhibitors.

In 1852, the patent laws were amended, and by the law as it now stands the proceedings to be first taken by an intending patentee are very similar to those under the Protection of Inventions Act. The inventor lodges his petition at the Great Seal Patent Office, Southampton Buildings, accompanied with a declaration that he is the true and first inventor, together with what is termed a provisional specification—i.e., a short statement of the nature of his invention without entering into details; if this be satisfactory, the applicant receives a certificate to that effect from the Attorney-General, and his invention is protected from piracy for six months, with liberty to him to proceed for his complete patent during that period if he thinks fit. This provisional protection involves a fee to Government of 5*l*., collected in the form of stamp duty on the petition.

If the inventor desires to complete his patent and extend his protection for a further period beyond the six months, he must proceed within that period (the first step being taken not later than the expiration of four months), and on paying a further sum of 20*l*. and filing a complete specification or full description of his invention, he gets his patent for fourteen years, subject its ceasing at the end of three and seven years in default of his paying stamp duties of 50*l*., and 100*l*. at such respective periods.

2. "Registration" includes two branches—that for articles of utility and that for designs for ornament.

The registration of designs for articles of utility is limited in character and restricted in extent, and is divided into "provisional" and "complete."

(A.) By provisional registration a copyright for one year (which may be further extended for six months by order of the Board of Trade) is given to the author or proprietor of any new or original design for the shape or configuration either of the whole or of part of any article of manufacture, such shape or configuration having reference to some purpose of utility, whether such article be made in metal or any other substance. During such terms the proprietor of the design has the privilege only of selling the right to apply the same to an article of manufacture, but not (under the penalty of nullifying the copyright) of selling any article with the design applied thereto until after complete registration, which must be effected prior to the expiration of the provisional registration. The fee for this registration is 10*s*.

(B.) By complete registration a copyright of three years is given to the author or proprietor of any new or original design for the shape or configuration either of the whole or of part of any article of manufacture, such shape or configuration having reference to some purpose of utility, whether such article be made in metal or any other substance. The fee for this registration is 10*l*.

In each case the protection is obtained by simply depositing a drawing and short description of the object in respect of which protection is sought.

It must be borne in mind that registration differs from letters patent, inasmuch as it gives protection only to the "shape or configuration" of articles of utility, and not to any mechanical action, principle, contrivance, application, or adaptation (except so far as these are dependent upon, and inseparable from, shape or configuration), or to the material of which the article is composed.

3. As regards copyright in designs for ornamenting articles of manufacture. The registration for this purpose is, like the former, divided into "provisional" and "complete."

(A.) By "provisional" registration a copyright of one year (which may be further extended for six months by order of the Board of Trade) is given to the author or proprietor of original designs for ornamenting any article of manufacture or substance. During such terms the proprietor of the design may sell the right to apply the same to an article of manufacture, but must not (under the penalty of nullifying the copyright) sell any article with the design applied thereto until after complete registration, which must be effected prior to the expiration of the provisional registration.

"Provisional" registration is obtained for all classes of manufactures and fabrics at a fee of 1*s*. for each design.

(B.) By "complete" registration a copyright or property is given to the author or proprietor of any new or original design for ornamenting any article of manufacture or sub-

in communication with the Board of Trade, and through their kind intervention an Act of Parliament (25 Vict. c. 12) was passed, the purport of which we will briefly explain.

By the law of England the right of an inventor to obtain letters patent is defeated by proof being given that the invention is already known to the public. It is clear, therefore, that, in the absence of a special enactment, an inventor by showing an article at an international exhibition, would publish his discovery to the world, and preclude himself from the benefits of the patent law. With the view of preventing this hardship, the Act in question declares that the circumstance of exhibiting an article at the International Exhibition shall not be deemed a "publication" within the meaning of the patent laws.

The Act, however, is limited to this object. It gives no protection against secret piracy, and confers no powers of punishing persons who may use the invention. To obtain these further advantages, the invention must be placed under the protection of the patent law, which may be done on payment of a moderate sum for what is termed "provisional protection."

An inventor thus provisionally privileged acquires an inchoate right to a patent, and is enabled to prevent, for a limited period, any infringement of his invention, without going to the expense of becoming a complete patentee.

Similar protection, at a nominal cost, is afforded to inventors of designs.

JURIES.

The subject of juries engaged our anxious attention at an early stage of our proceedings. Various competent authorities were of opinion that it would be desirable either not to award prizes at all, or to allow each country to appoint its own jury, and adjudge medals according to rules which might be found most suitable to the country in question. Both of these suggestions were open to objections. Foreign countries have been so much accustomed

stance for terms varying from nine months to three years, according to the different classes of manufactures to which the design is to be applied. The fees vary, according to the classes, from 1s. to 1l. each class, and for certain groups of classes from 5l. to 7l. according to the circumstances.

4. As to sculpture.

By registration a protection of a nature similar to that granted for designs for ornamenting articles of manufacture is granted to sculptures, models, copies, or casts of the whole or part of the human figure, or of animals, for the term, or unexpired part of the term, during which copyright in such sculpture, models, copies, or casts, may or shall exist under the Sculpture Copyright Acts, and the fee for registering the same is 5l.

5. I have not entered into the details as to the manner in which the protection under these various heads is obtained, considering that that is not the object for which this report is required. Such details can be readily obtained by any person gratuitously on application either at the Patent Office or at the Designs Office, No. 1, Whitehall, S. W.

At the present time inventors intending to exhibit have all the facilities for protecting their inventions which they possessed in 1851 under the laws then in force, as well as under the temporary Act of Parliament then passed specially on their behalf, save that there is now a stamp duty of 5l., payable for the protection under the amended Patent Law.

All these modes of protection are available equally to foreigners as well as to British subjects.

Looking at the large number of patents which are annually applied for, and for which provisional protection is allowed, between 2000 and 3000 in number, and the very trivial objects for which they are frequently sought, it is clear that the 5l. stamp duty is practically no hindrance or bar to the inventor; and under these circumstances I am led to the conclusion, and beg to suggest to her Majesty's commissioners, that there is no need now of any special legislation in favour of exhibitors of new inventions in 1862 as there was in 1851.

F. R. Sandford, Esq.,
Secretary to H.M.'s Commissioners,
&c. &c.

I have the honour to be, Sir,
Your obedient Servant,
P. LE NEVE FOSTER.

to the distribution of medals in their large exhibitions, that it is doubtful whether their co-operation would have been secured had we declined to offer rewards for merit. This difficulty might, indeed, have been obviated by permitting each country to award medals to its own exhibitors, but such a proceeding would have deprived the Exhibition of its international character, and rendered it a mere collection of the exhibitions of different nations brought into juxtaposition. The advantage of comparison of the products of different countries could only be obtained by subjecting the various collections to the examination of international juries, consisting of men eminent in various branches of science, art, and industry.

We accordingly invited the foreign nations in the Exhibition to appoint jurors who were skilled in the industries chiefly represented in their collections. Each nation had a right to nominate one juror for every class in which it had twenty exhibitors, or for every section of a class in which it had fifteen exhibitors. As this rule would have excluded some of the smaller exhibiting states, as well as some which, while exhibiting largely in the aggregate, might not, in the case of growing industries, reach the limit of numbers conferring the right of nomination, an alternative was given by offering to assign a certain number of jurors to each country in proportion to the space occupied by it in the building. Several countries acted upon this alternative.

Having obtained the returns of jurors from foreign countries, and having thus ascertained the number of foreigners who would serve on each jury, we then proceeded to complete the several juries by the appointment of English jurors. We did not consider it necessary, as in 1851 and 1855, to secure that one-half of each jury should be retained for the country in which the Exhibition was held, but acting on the experience of past exhibitions, we fixed at the outset a sufficient number of jurors for each class, and filled up this number by the appointment of English jurors. It, therefore, depended altogether upon the extent to which the foreign nations had exercised their privileges of appointment, whether a jury had a majority or minority of English jurors.

The colonial jurors were nominated by the colonial commissioners, a certain number having been allotted to each colony, corresponding to the space occupied by it in the Exhibition.

The English jurors were in the first place nominated by the exhibitors. These nominations were carefully discussed, and the number of votes given to each person was ascertained and recorded in his favour. When it was found that any district or any trade had acted upon a common agreement by voting for the same persons, we appointed them as jurors to the classes for which they were recommended. In cases where there was no common understanding in the nomination, we were guided in the appointment by the number of votes given to particular individuals. In some instances, it was desirable to add men eminent in science and art, or experienced in public affairs, to the juries, and in these cases, acting upon the expressed wish of a large proportion of the English exhibitors, we made such appointments ourselves. By the method now described, the English jurors appointed to the several classes were obtained from every large manufacturing town in the kingdom, and were practically skilled in the several industries represented; they had associated with them men eminent in the science which has created and the art which has adorned our manufactures, while, at the same time, the addition of men of known judgment and discretion, accus-

tomed to the administration of public affairs, gave confidence to all that the judgments would be made irrespective of local feelings or national prejudices. We refer with confidence to the list of jurors as the best proof of the success of the system on which they were appointed. Upwards of 600 persons, eminent in science, art, industry, or manufactures, were engaged incessantly for two months in examining and deciding on the merits of the objects exhibited. This work, which, so far as the British jurors were concerned, was entirely of an honorary character, was done at the sacrifice of much time and money, but the results attending the comparison of the industrial products of the world by men of so many different nations, skilled in their various subjects, will, it is hoped, by the interchange of knowledge and experience, amply reward those who participated in the labour.

The numbers of medals voted by the juries amount to nearly 7000, and the "Honourable Mentions" to about 5,300. We decided at an early stage of our proceedings that there should only be a single medal* of bronze to denote all kinds of excellence. A list of honourable mentions was, however, added by the juries during the progress of their work. The proportion of awards to exhibitors is nearly intermediate to those of the International Exhibitions of 1851 and 1855. No conclusion as to the relative excellence can be drawn from the proportion of medals to the exhibitors of various countries, because, while some foreign commissioners admitted nearly all the objects offered for exhibition, others exercised a rigid system of selection by examining them, firstly, by a local and secondly by a central jury, before they were admitted for competition.

Having appointed the English jurors, and laid down the general decisions under which the juries were to act, we divested ourselves of all powers in this department, by passing them over to a council, consisting of the chairmen of the juries of the thirty-six classes into which the Exhibition was divided. These chairmen were nominated by us, each nation being represented on the council, as far as possible, in proportion to the space occupied by it in the building. Over this council Lord Taunton was good enough, at our request, to undertake to act as president, and Monsieur Michel Chevalier as vice-president. All medals voted by the several Juries were submitted to the council for confirmation, and its decisions were final in all matters relating to the work of the juries. We were represented at the council, and in the general work of the juries, by a special commissioner, Dr. Lyon Playfair, C.B., who was aided by twelve deputy commissioners and a secretary. The special commissioner, while aiding the council and the juries in the general transaction of their business, was requested by us to refrain from any interference with their decisions.

It is gratifying to record that, notwithstanding the various nationalities represented on the juries, the utmost harmony prevailed during the work, a fact which finds its best expression in the mutual dependence and intimate alliance of the industries of the world.

Our most grateful acknowledgments are due to every one who rendered assistance in this important branch of the Exhibition, but especially to Lord Taunton, the president of the council of chairmen, and to the distinguished foreigner who acted as vice-president; to Dr. Lyon Playfair; to the whole body of the jurors, who, at a great sacrifice of time and personal inconvenience, undertook a work of so arduous a description; to Mr. Iselin,

* The prize medal was designed by Mr. MacIise, R.A., and executed by Mr. Leonard Wyon.

the secretary of the juries, and the deputy commissioners, who afforded efficient aid to the juries during their enquiries.

We have also to express our obligations to the members of the various juries who have drawn up valuable reports on the progress of industry, in their respective classes, since the Exhibition of 1851. The publication of these reports was undertaken by the Society of Arts, when we found that we were not justified in throwing an additional risk on the guarantors by publishing the reports at our own cost.

REFRESHMENTS.

In 1851, only light refreshments were allowed to be sold to the public, but there were no means of preventing the introduction by visitors of provisions of a more substantial character, which were consumed in great quantities throughout the building. At Paris, in 1855, a well-organized restaurant was attached to the Exhibition, and was much appreciated by all classes of visitors. We, therefore, resolved not to attempt to impose the same restrictions as in 1851 upon the convenience of the public, but to allow solid refreshments of every kind to be supplied in the building; and as wines were to be admitted to the Exhibition for the first time in this country, we thought it only fair to the foreign exhibitors to give them an opportunity, by means of arrangements with the contractors, to bring these wines before the public.

Our great object in the organization of this department was to secure,—

- (1.) That the sale of refreshments should not interfere with the main purposes of the Exhibition;
- (2.) That good refreshments should be supplied at moderate prices; and,
- (3.) That the tastes of all classes of visitors, including foreigners, should be duly considered.

While we allowed light refreshments, therefore, to be sold at a few places selected throughout the building itself, we confined the sale of provisions of a substantial character to the arcades of the Horticultural Society, which had been specially lent to us for that purpose, and to certain areas in the two annexes, carefully partitioned off so as to prevent all offensive smells, and devoted exclusively to refreshments of the cheapest class.

The whole amount of space originally set apart for refreshments amounted to about 116,000 square feet, of which 2000 square feet were in the main body of the building, 20,000 in the two annexes, and the remainder in the Horticultural arcades.* We divided this space into two nearly equal parts; and having prepared exact plans of those two areas, we invited tenders from persons who might be willing to contract for the supply of refreshments, according to very explicit conditions.

We reserved to ourselves the full power of accepting whatever tenders seemed most likely to contribute to the general success of the Exhibition, without exclusive reference to the amount of the premiums that were offered; and we determined, for the sake of variety, and of keeping up a useful rivalry between the two areas, to let one of them, if a fair offer were made for it, to a foreign contractor.

No fewer than eighteen tenders (seven foreign and eleven English) were sent in on the 15th of November, 1861, the day named for the purpose.

* Arrangements were subsequently made, during the course of the Exhibition, by which a large amount of additional accommodation was provided, by the erection of dining-rooms at the S.W. corner of the Horticultural Gardens.

These were examined, and a select list of four (three English and one French), the terms of which appeared to be most to the interests of the Exhibition, as a self-supporting institution, was specially referred to the finance committee for their consideration. After making careful inquiry, in concert with ourselves, both in this country and abroad, as to the qualifications of the various persons tendering, in respect of skill and experience in the management of such undertakings, and after settling the pecuniary terms of the agreement, to be made with us, in such a manner as would render it impossible for the funds of the Exhibition to suffer, in the event of failure on the part of the contractors, the finance committee eventually concurred with us in determining to accept the tenders which had been sent in by Messrs. Morrish and Sanders for one division, and by MM. Veillard and Martin Guepet for the other, to whom the two contracts were accordingly assigned.

In one of these cases, we had reason to be satisfied with the selection which was made. Mr. Morrish (who shortly before the death of his colleague had become the sole contractor for the English division) not only carried out his own engagements in a creditable manner, but when, in the month of September, M. Veillard, whose partner had previously withdrawn, became involved in difficulties, which rendered it impossible for him to carry on his contract, Mr. Morrish came forward and undertook the whole responsibility of both divisions of the refreshment department, which he administered from that time till the close of the Exhibition with ability and success.

FINANCE.

The financial business of the Exhibition was carried on under our control, with the advice of the committee, to whose appointment reference has already been made. The President of the Board of Trade, with the consent of the Treasury, was good enough to allow Mr. John J. Mayo, a leading officer in the Board of Trade,* to act as our principal financial officer; and the whole organization of this department was carried out under Mr. Mayo's superintendence, in a manner which reflected the greatest credit on his zeal, intelligence, and ability. The finance committee, in addition to frequent meetings called from time to time, as occasion required, for the discussion of questions relating to our expenditure, met regularly every month for the purpose of examining the vouchers and accounts of the financial officer, after which meetings their reports were duly laid before us, with Mr. Mayo's statements of our financial position.

A general balance-sheet, showing the financial results of the undertaking, up to this date, will be found at page 412.

We proceed to make a few remarks upon some points in this return which appear to call for special notice: first, as regards the sources of our income; and secondly, in reference to the main branches of our expenditure.

I. *RECEIPTS.—Prices of Admission.*—This subject was the cause of much anxious deliberation, for while, on the one hand, we were desirous of fixing the prices of admission at a rate which would enable all classes to visit the Exhibition, we were no less anxious to provide a revenue sufficient to meet the expenses for the building, and the maintenance of the Exhibition. We, therefore, decided that, following the precedent of 1851, admission should be—1st. By season tickets; 2nd. By payment at the doors. The price of

* Mr. Mayo has recently been appointed registrar-general of seamen.

the season tickets was fixed at three guineas each ; they entitled the owners to admission to the Exhibition on every day the building was open to the public, but were not transferable. By an arrangement with the Royal Horticultural Society, special season tickets were issued, which, in addition to admitting to the Exhibition, entitled the owners to free admission to the flower shows, fêtes, and promenades in the society's gardens during the time the Exhibition was open. The price of these tickets was five guineas each, a proportion of this charge being payable to the society in consideration of the privileges granted by them to the holders of these tickets. The following were the rates of admission agreed upon :—On 1st May, season tickets only were available. On 2nd and 3rd May, the admission each day was 1*l.* for each person. From 5th to 17th May, 5*s.* From 19th to 31st May, 2*s.* 6*d.*, except on the Saturday in each week, when the charge was 5*s.* From 2nd to 14th June the price of admission on four days in the week was 1*s.* ; on the Fridays, 2*s.* 6*d.* ; and on the Saturdays, 5*s.* After the 14th June the charge on four days of the week was 1*s.*, and 2*s.* 6*d.* on the Friday and Saturday. From the 1st to the 15th of November the rate of admission was 2*s.* 6*d.* for each person. In the month of July we decided, with the view of giving increased facilities to the public for studying the Exhibition, to reduce the prices of the existing season tickets to one-half, and to issue tickets, available for the shilling days only, for ten shillings each. These experiments, however, were not attended with the success which was anticipated, as comparatively few such tickets were sold. *Season Tickets.*—The following is a statement of the number of season tickets sold :—5773, at 5 guineas, 30,308*l.* 5*s.* 0*d.* ; 17,719, at 3 guineas, 55,814*l.* 17*s.* 0*d.* ; 26, at 50*s.*, 65*l.* ; 919, at 30*s.*, 1378*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* ; 3363, at 10*s.* (for shilling days), 1681*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* Total, 27,800 tickets ; 89,241*l.* 2*s.* 0*d.* The sum of 8672*l.* 5*s.* was paid to the Royal Horticultural Society, under the arrangement already referred to, in consideration of the advantages enjoyed by the holders of the joint tickets. *Day Tickets.*—In the month of May we approved a scheme submitted to us of selling day tickets in packets for 20*s.* each, with the object of enabling employers to send their workmen to the Exhibition ; and although great numbers were purchased by employers, and other philanthropic persons for distribution, it was found that the additional 1*s.* ticket, which was given as a bonus to purchasers of packets, was an inducement to persons residing in the neighbourhood to purchase these tickets to sell again to visitors who were on their way to the Exhibition. *Refreshments.*—The contractors for the foreign division of this department paid, in February, 1862, a premium of 5000*l.*, and one halfpenny per head on all admissions by payment at the doors, up to 4,000,000 visitors, when the head money was reduced to a farthing per visitor. For the western side, Messrs. Morrish and Co. paid a premium of 500*l.* in February, 1862, and a deposit of 1500*l.* at the same date, which was returned at the close of the Exhibition. They further paid five-eighths of a penny per head upon all visitors entering the building. The sums received by us, for premium and head money, in the two areas, amounted to 29,285*l.* 4*s.* 11*d.* *Retiring Rooms.*—The contract for this service was undertaken by Mr. Jennings, who paid to the funds of the Exhibition the sum of 1000*l.* for the privilege. *Umbrella Stalls.*—The net receipts for the care of umbrellas, sticks, parcels, &c., amounted to 2118*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.*, a charge of 1*d.* being made for the care of each article. The highest amount taken on any one day was 53*l.* on the 24th July. *Photographic Licences.*—A sum of 350*l.* was paid by Messrs.

Bernstingl for the privilege of photographing the progress of the works to the 12th of February, the day when the building was delivered up to us by the contractors; and the London Stereoscopic Company paid 1575*l.* for the privilege of taking views of the interior of the building, and of its contents,* from the 1st of May. The Stereoscopic Company also paid 455*l.* 15*s.* 3*d.* as commission on their sales in the building.

II. EXPENDITURE.—*Building.*—Our chief expenditure was upon the building, the terms of our contract, for which we proceed briefly to explain. The Society of Arts, in their communications respecting the provisions of the charter, had kept in view not merely the Exhibition of 1862, and the establishment of future International Exhibitions upon the same site, but also (and partly as a means of securing the reservation of that site) the erection of a building which would be available for their own annual exhibitions, and for otherwise promoting the general objects of the society. It was, therefore, arranged with the commissioners for 1851, that the sum of 20,000*l.* should be spent upon a structure of a permanent character, forming part of the building to be erected by us, and covering one acre of the site that was placed at our disposal. This acre was to be leased to the society if the financial results of the Exhibition were satisfactory, and a further sum not exceeding 30,000*l.* was in the same event to be spent in completing the building erected upon it, in an architectural manner. The contract for the main building, including the centre acre of the picture galleries in Cromwell Road (the part destined for the Society of Arts), and the western annexe was for use and waste, and the payments to the contractors were to be as follows:—200,000*l.* was to be paid before the 1st of June, 1862, and such further sums (not exceeding 100,000*l.*) as we received from the Exhibition beyond 400,000*l.*; the second 200,000*l.* being reserved by us to meet the general expenses of management. In other words, the contractors were to receive 200,000*l.* absolutely, and an additional 100,000*l.* if the net receipts of the Exhibition reached half a million. We were also to have the right, at the close of the Exhibition, of purchasing the centre portion of the picture gallery for 25,000*l.*; the two ends of the gallery for a similar sum; and the remainder of the building (except the annexes and the buildings † on the south arcades of the Horticultural Society's garden) for 105,000*l.* It was further agreed that, in the event of the contractors receiving the full contract sum of 300,000*l.*, the centre acre of picture gallery should become our property, without any further payment on account of it. These terms we agreed to, on the recommendation of the building committee; and we do not consider that they were unreasonable, considering the extent and character of the building, and the amount of special accommodation in solid work that was required for the fine art department. We have no doubt but that for the unfortunate circumstances which diminished the anticipated attendance, the full contract sum would have been paid to the contractors. In the month of September, however, on reviewing our liabilities and probable receipts up to the 18th of October, the date at which it was understood that the Exhibition should terminate, we came to the conclusion that, if the building were closed on that day, not only would the contractors receive considerably less than

* No photograph of any article or work of art exhibited was allowed to be taken without the consent of the owner.

† These buildings, being the refreshment rooms, are the property of the Commissioners for 1851.

300,000*l.*, but that, to meet our other liabilities, a call of about 10 per cent. would have to be made upon the guarantors. Such a result would have been damaging not only to the character of the Exhibition itself, but also to the prospect of future exhibitions in this country. We accordingly submitted the state of our affairs to the contractors, who were mainly interested in the results of the Exhibition, and after communicating with the Society of Arts in reference to the position of the guarantors, and their own contingent claim upon the centre acre of the picture gallery, the following arrangement was agreed to (on the 16th September, 1862) as most advantageous to all the various interests concerned:—1. That, with the view of increasing the receipts from the admission of visitors, the building should be kept open for a month longer than was originally intended, viz., from the 18th of October to the 1st of November, on the usual terms of admission, and for a fortnight after that date, at a higher rate, for the sale of the exhibitors' goods. 2. That the contractors should forego, in our favour, one-half of their claim upon the receipts taken after the 18th of October, which half should be devoted, in relief of the guarantors, to defraying the general expenses of the Exhibition. Mr. Kelk, with very great liberality, further agreed, as part of this arrangement, to contribute any sum, not exceeding 15,000*l.*, which would secure the guarantors from loss. 3. That we should waive any direct or contingent claim, which the contract gave us on behalf of the Society of Arts to any part of the building. The sums which we received under the second clause of this arrangement happily enabled us to close the undertaking without making any call upon the guarantors.

CONCLUSION.

With the foregoing summary of the leading points in our financial arrangements we close this report of our proceedings, in which we have rendered, for the information of her Majesty, an account of the manner in which we have endeavoured to discharge the responsible duties which she was graciously pleased to entrust to us.

On the general character of the Exhibition we feel that we ought to offer no comment, beyond the remark that it was such as to prove, not only the striking progress which has been made in the industry of the world since the first Exhibition, but also the extent to which that progress is promoted by the means of these great international gatherings. It is our earnest hope that those to whom may be confided the direction of the next Exhibition in this country may be able to point to the beneficial results of the display of the past year, with as much confidence as we can do to the evidence afforded by that display of the advantages which have resulted from the labours of our predecessors in 1851.

We cannot, however, omit this opportunity of recording our sense of the irreparable loss which, in common with the directors of every great undertaking in this country, we sustained, in the untimely death of the illustrious prince, who, in the earlier stages of our proceedings, had aided us with his wide experience, and to whose counsels and sympathy we had looked forward with so much confidence for guidance and support in the hour of difficulty.

If, under the favour of the Great Disposer of human events, we have been able to carry to a successful issue the second of these friendly contests held on British soil; if our efforts have tended to the furtherance of a peace-

ful rivalry among the nations of the earth, affording them the opportunity of realizing how truly it has been said that "Alternately the nations learn and teach;" and if we have been so fortunate as to merit the approval of her Majesty—we feel that these happy results have been attained only so far as we have borne in mind the precepts and example of the royal founder of international exhibitions, who, with his wonted sagacity, foresaw the great advantages that would result to this country, and the world at large, from such exhibitions; who, by his prudence, knowledge, and judgment, overcame the difficulties that lay in the way of their establishment, and whose wise and controlling influence guided the first exhibition to a prosperous and fortunate issue.

Given under our corporate seal, at the Council Chamber, Whitehall, this 20th day of April, 1863. Signed by Earl Granville, the Dukes of Buckingham and Chandos, C. Wentworth Dilke, Thomas Baring, and Thomas Fairbairn.

Immediately after the Exhibition the commissioner C. Wentworth Dilke, Esq., and the secretary, F. A. Sandford, Esq., received the honour of knighthood.

SUMMARY OF WEEKLY TOTALS.

For the Week ending	Numbers admitted by					Total each Week.	Day Tickets taken at Doors in lieu of Money.					Actual Money taken at Doors.
	Ordinary Season Tickets.	Season Tickets for 14 days.	Exhibitors' and Staff Passes.	Day Tickets and Payment at Doors.	Return Tickets From Horticultural Gardens.		At Horticultural Gardens.	5s.	2s. 6d.	1s.	Equal to	
											£ s. d.	£ s. d.
May 3	54,524	806	..	55,080	806 0 0
" 10	47,345	22,976	..	70,321	5,763 6 8
" 17	39,373	23,110	..	62,483	5,791 15 0
" 24	45,025	63,565	..	108,580	8,684 1 3
" 31	40,484	75,251	..	115,735	..	13	54	..	10 0 0	10,085 1 11
June 7	53,310	164,204	..	197,514	633	42	277	2,763	220 13 0	11,142 1 11
" 14	32,119	216,736	..	248,855	571	36	253	8,554	498 15 6	13,289 19 6
" 21	31,209	212,259	..	243,468	724	17	355	6,984	433 9 6	12,718 11 11
" 28	29,263	..	10,432	245,631	..	286,496	730	20	440	10,470	629 3 6	14,817 6 6
July 5	35,976	..	14,174	247,188	..	298,338	814	28	761	11,731	705 10 0	14,556 12 1
" 12	42,194	1,651	15,327	247,950	..	307,612	429	15	288	12,004	662 11 6	13,213 15 7
" 19	37,532	4,476	13,745	257,838	..	303,641	1113	16	441	14,228	829 3 6	14,798 11 4
" 26	34,075	4,466	18,579	254,566	..	296,688	320	17	947	16,057	943 19 0	14,676 4 8
Aug. 3	21,940	4,589	13,075	244,338	11,706	296,648	363	12	965	20,519	1,170 15 0	13,704 19 0
" 9	18,852	4,139	12,457	240,175	10,100	285,732	326	8	1,245	26,411	1,495 4 6	13,006 0 0
" 16	16,967	4,278	12,274	226,405	11,870	270,794	274	13	1,390	31,532	1,767 10 6	11,777 11 7
" 23	17,704	3,764	11,857	231,965	12,610	277,900	315	8	4,378	42,625	2,697 18 0	11,331 7 5
" 30	18,735	3,692	11,687	219,117	11,480	264,813	218	10	2,899	47,430	2,748 1 0	10,326 10 5
Sept. 6	14,390	3,041	10,988	200,415	9,169	237,903	204	11	3,289	44,459	2,647 11 0	9,418 14 3
" 13	14,416	2,597	10,576	203,178	7,513	240,280	196	8	3,506	43,400	2,870 14 6	9,423 15 0
" 20	15,549	2,381	10,696	199,894	7,902	236,431	203	2	3,643	48,308	2,877 8 0	9,101 1 4
" 27	12,639	2,371	10,367	182,659	5,435	214,571	101	4	1,697	40,291	2,363 2 0	8,683 18 3
Oct. 4	14,763	2,498	9,466	158,081	3,902	188,709	114	1	2,180	38,231	2,190 12 0	7,262 18 10
" 11	19,965	3,129	9,349	174,124	7,534	214,002	440	7	2,223	41,719	2,394 3 6	7,920 0 2
" 18	17,678	3,323	9,270	206,736	7,322	244,029	304	12	1,385	46,690	2,522 5 0	9,549 12 3
" 25	24,302	2,322	9,021	199,592	4,019	240,066	140	5	211	744	73 18 6	12,451 15 5
Nov. 1	27,037	4,897	11,599	261,785	3,723	319,041	121	6	225	1,656	120 4 0	16,142 0 5
" 8	14,608	..	19,073	11,745	41	45,467	1	0 2 6	1,462 2 3
" 15	17,739	..	18,235	12,962	60	48,996	6	0 15 0	1,623 1 0
	770,704	59,536	257,246	5,010,131	114,486	6,211,103	8159	328	32,690	663,187	32,850 13 0	293,062 16 11

Add amounts received for Day Tickets, &c. 25,796 17 6

Deduct Money returned (paid in error) £228,561 14 5

£ 3 14 0

[419]

AN ACCOUNT of the TOTAL RECEIPTS and PAYMENTS of the COMMISSIONERS
for the EXHIBITION of 1862, from 15th March, 1861, to 20th April, 1863,
inclusive.

Month of	Receipts.				Month of	Payments.			
	LOAN ACCOUNT.					LOAN ACCOUNT.			
1861.	£.	s.	d.	£. s. d.	1862.	£.	s.	d.	£. s. d.
April	8,000	0	0		December ...	188,000	0	0	
June	3,000	0	0						188,000 0 0
July	25,000	0	0		GENERAL ACCOUNT.				
August	22,000	0	0		1861.				
September ...	20,000	0	0		March 15 to }				
October	20,000	0	0		April 19 }	183	8	4	
November ...	19,000	0	0		April 30 ...	2,807	12	10	
December ...	19,000	0	0		May	1,941	16	1	
1862.					June	3,011	5	1	
January ...	20,000	0	0		July	26,002	16	7	
February ...	27,000	0	0		August	20,807	2	11	
March	5,000	0	0		September ...	20,777	18	9	
				188,000 0 0	October	21,383	13	10	
GENERAL ACCOUNT.					November ...	21,602	10	3	
1861.					December ...	21,392	5	8	
June	367	17	9		1862.				
July	9	2	0		January ...	22,326	9	2	
September ...	280	0	0		February ...	33,888	16	5	
October	2,640	15	0		March	15,931	5	9	
November ...	600	8	0		April	29,055	0	8	
December ...	2,773	19	6		May	47,980	13	5	
1862.					June	20,599	6	8	
January ...	7,133	16	6		July	47,235	10	1	
February ...	10,326	1	8		August	23,235	12	6	
March	14,700	2	6		September ...	12,620	18	4	
April	41,446	2	9		October	40,652	3	1	
May	66,283	5	6		November ...	26,230	3	7	
June	68,971	10	4		December ...	16,913	10	0	
July	88,177	9	3		1863.				
August	69,199	12	1		January ...	14,977	7	1	
September ...	57,828	9	10		February ...	11,143	4	10	
October	58,510	19	6		March	6,492	2	8	
November ...	7,569	3	8		April	5,114	19	11	
December ...	15,841	14	3						514,307 14 6
1863.					EXCHEQUER BILLS AND INVESTMENTS.				
January ...	1,095	10	7		1862.				
February ...	251	11	0		July	85,193	17	7	
				514,007 11 8	August ...	16,356	9	10	
EXCHEQUER BILLS AND INVESTMENTS.					September ...	90,000	0	0	
1862.									191,550 7 5
October ...	332	1	3		Total ...	893,858	1	11	
December ...	192,302	5	6		Balance, viz.:				
				192,634 6 9	Bank of }				
					England }	730	1	9	
					Office Cash	53	14	9	
									783 16 6
									£894,641 18 5

RETURN showing the AMOUNT of SPACE DEMANDED by BRITISH EXHIBITORS in the INDUSTRIAL CLASSES, the SPACE ORIGINALLY ALLOTTED, and the SPACE ACTUALLY OCCUPIED in the THIRTY-SIX CLASSES.

No.	Classes.	Space demanded.	Space originally allotted.	Space actually occupied.
		Square feet.	Square feet.	Square feet.
1	Mining, quarrying, metallurgy, and mineral products	21,340	2,200	9,135
2	Chemical substances and products, and pharmaceutical processes	5,872	1,500	1,674
3	Substances used as food	10,102	2,100	1,628
4	Animal and vegetable substances used in manufactures	14,249	3,000	3,210
5	Railway plant, including locomotive engines and carriages	18,797	62,000	5,360
7	Manufacturing machines and tools	201,029		21,257
8	Machinery in general	85,260		48,161
6	Carriages not connected with rail or tram roads ...	32,625	10,000	5,528
9	Agricultural and horticultural machines and implements	199,585	17,000	24,810
10	Civil engineering, architectural and building contrivances	36,273	6,000	6,931
11	Military engineering, armour and accoutrements, ordnance, and small arms	13,389	3,000	3,379
12	Naval architecture and ship's tackle	9,469	2,500	2,543
13	Philosophical instruments, and processes depending upon their use... ..	8,776	2,000	2,485
14	Photographic apparatus and photography	4,504	1,000	740
15	Horological instruments	5,106	1,000	1,650
16	Musical instruments	15,709	4,000	5,703
17	Surgical instruments and appliances	2,752	800	827
18	Cotton	4,312	1,000	1,712
19	Flax and hemp	15,504	2,000	567
20	Silk and velvet	4,017	1,000	2,517
21	Woollen and worsted, including mixed fabrics generally	20,502	4,100	5,727
22	Carpets	2,316	500	...
23	Woven, spun, felted, and laid fabrics, when shown as printing or dyeing... ..	2,770	1,000	1,474
24	Tapestry, lace, and embroidery	4,372	1,000	1,535
25	Skins, furs, feathers, and hair... ..	2,432	500	388
26	Leather, including saddlery and harness	7,152	2,000	1,903
27	Articles of clothing	12,289	2,100	3,628
28	Paper, stationery, printing, and bookbinding	6,385	2,000	1,715
29	Educational works and appliances	15,504	2,000	3,915
30	Furniture and upholstery, including paper-bhangings and papier-mâché	42,394	12,000	11,959
31	Iron and general hardware	79,367	16,000	16,014
32	Steel, cutlery, and edge tools	6,072	1,500	3,202
33	Works in precious metals, and their imitations, and jewellery	10,129	3,500	4,795
34	Glass	14,524	3,100	1,889
35	Pottery	25,287	6,500	6,979
36	Dressing cases, despatch boxes, and travelling cases	3,685	1,000	962
	Total	963,750	180,900	215,902

Return of NUMBERS of AWARDS made by the INTERNATIONAL JURIES to the
UNITED KINGDOM, including the CHANNEL ISLANDS.

No.	Classes.	Medal.	Honour- able Mention.	No. of Exhibitors.
1	Mining, quarrying, metallurgy, and mineral products	86	77	412
2	Chemical substances and products, and pharmaceuti- cal processes	82	52	201
3	Substances used for food	55	36	160
4	Animal and vegetable substances used in manufac- tures	101	75	245
5	Railway plant, including locomotive engines and carriages	16	15	82
6	Carriages not connected with rail or tram roads ...	23	13	112
7	Manufacturing machines and tools	63	68	236
8	Machinery in general	67	51	246
9	Agricultural and horticultural machines and imple- ments	47	59	139
10	Civil engineering, architectural and building con- trivances	52	28	192
11	Military engineering, armour and accoutrements, ordnance and small arms	38	21	127
12	Naval architecture and ships' tackle	32	27	164
13	Philosophical instruments, and processes depending upon their use... ..	51	27	162
14	Photographic apparatus and photography	27	53	150
15	Horological instruments... ..	37	44	97
16	Musical instruments	27	20	90
17	Surgical instruments and appliances	32	15	124
18	Cotton	32	14	57
19	Flax and hemp	34	19	81
20	Silk and velvet	33	14	60
21	Woollen and worsted, including mixed fabrics gene- rally	83	38	219
22	Carpets	14	25	43
23	Woven, spun, felted, and laid fabrics when shown as specimens of printing or dyeing... ..	19	...	50
24	Tapestry, lace, and embroidery	33	21	81
25	Skins, furs, feathers, and hair... ..	18	23	69
26	Leather, including saddlery and harness	45	46	136
27	Articles of clothing	52	58	204
28	Paper, stationery, printing, and bookbinding ...	80	58	223
29	Educational works and appliances	76	28	222
30	Furniture and upholstery, including paper hangings and papier-mâché	39	45	262
31	Iron and general hardware	123	85	384
32	Steel, cutlery, and edge tools	52	51	118
33	Works in precious metals, and their imitations, and jewellery	26	32	90
34	Glass	17	18	78
35	Pottery	19	6	70
36	Dressing cases, despatch boxes, and travelling cases	8	6	29
	Total	1,639	1,268	5,415

RETURN of NUMBER of AWARDS made by the INTERNATIONAL JURIES to each of the BRITISH COLONIES and FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

	Medals.	Honourable Mentions.	Number of Exhibitors.	Classes.
COLONIES.				
Bermuda	6	4	1	2, 3, 4.
British Columbia	1	1	5	4, 14.
Canada	63	28	199	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 14, 21, 29, 32.
New Brunswick	9	9	30	1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 29, 31, 32.
Newfoundland	5	1	22	1, 3, 25.
Nova Scotia	19	11	65	1, 3, 4, 8, 10, 12, 25, 26, 29, 30, 32.
Prince Edward's Island... ..	5	1	1	3, 4, 21.
Vancouver's Island	3	...	6	1, 3, 4.
Bahamas	4	1	5	4, 29.
Barbadoes	5	1	5	3, 4.
British Guiana	38	17	78	2, 3, 4, 14, 29, 30.
British Honduras	1	1	1	3, 4.
Dominica	2	...	1	2, 4.
Jamaica	69	60	215	1, 2, 3, 4, 14, 29.
St. Vincent	1	2	4	3.
Trinidad	10	5	1	1, 2, 3, 4.
Cape of Good Hope	1	1	2	4, 29.
Natal	21	8	1	1, 3, 4, 10, 25, 29.
St. Helena	1	...	3	4.
New South Wales	77	46	397	1, 3, 4, 10, 11, 12, 14, 16, 18, 21, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 33.
New Zealand	33	11	114	1, 3, 4, 12, 14, 30.
Queensland	26	19	91	2, 3, 4, 10, 14, 18, 21, 26.
South Australia	26	17	77	1, 3, 4, 9, 10, 14, 29, 33.
Tasmania	37	26	148	1, 3, 4, 10, 12, 14, 25, 29, 30.
Victoria	113	92	518	1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, 21, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 35.
West Australia	14	9	70	1, 3, 4, 9, 29, 30.
India	130	84	749	In all classes but the surgical instruments (17), and glass (34), and principally in the first four classes.
Ceylon	18	5	41	3, 4, 30, 33.
Mauritius	7	5	25	3, 4.
Ionian Islands	26	32	172	3, 4, 22, 24, 30, 33.
Malta	10	9	25	3, 4, 10, 24, 30, 33.
FOREIGN COUNTRIES.				
Western & Central Africa, Liberia and Madagascar	5	...	17	3, 4.
Austria	504	377	1413	All classes, and principally in class 3.
Belgium	251	194	799	The same, and principally 3, 4, 24.
Brazil	46	38	230	All classes but 5, 6, 8, 10, 16, 22, 23, 24, 29.
China and Japan	10	8	38	2, 3, 4, 17, 20, 27, 31, 33.
Denmark	50	50	285	All classes but 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 32, 34, 36.
France	1390	877	3204	All classes.
Algeria	140	111	571	2, 3, 4, 11, 20, 22, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29, 33.
French Colonies	99	61	255	2, 3, 4, 18, 20, 27, 29.
Greece	57	47	296	1, 3, 4, 8, 10, 14, 20, 22, 24, 27, 28, 30.
Hanse Towns	22	40	187	2, 3, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 22, 24, 26, 27, 28, 30, 31, 32, 33.
Italy	322	317	2099	All classes but 6, 12, 22, 25, 36.
Mecklenburg	3	9	55	3, 7, 8, 9, 10, 14, 15, 28, 30, 34.
Miscellaneous	5	1	10	3, 4, 30.
Netherlands and Dutch Colonies	69	79	348	All classes but 5, 7, 8, 16, 18, 20, 32, 35, 36.

	Medals.	Honourable Mention.	Number of Exhibitors.	Classes.
FOREIGN COUNTRIES.				
Norway	41	37	216	All classes but 5, 13, 17, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 32, 34, 35, 36.
Portugal and Portuguese Colonies	160	231	1870	All classes but 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 16, 22, 25, 30, 31, 32, 33, 35, 36.
Rome	19	6	76	2, 3, 4, 13, 14, 20, 24, 28, 30, 33.
Russia	176	123	724	All classes but 8, 13.
South American Republics	18	12	110	1, 3, 4.
Spain	133	149	1643	1, 2, 3, 11, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 26, 27, 30, 33, 35.
Sweden	112	116	511	All classes but 6, 22, 23, 24, 32, 35, 36.
Switzerland	119	94	374	All classes but 5, 6, 12, 21, 34, 35.
Turkey and Egypt ...	86	43	787	3, 4, 11, 16, 20, 21, 22, 24, 25, 27, 30, 33.
United States of America	58	31	128	All classes but 5, 10, 15, 18, 19, 20, 22, 24, 26, 29, 30, 31, 33, 34, 35, 36.
Zollverein States:—				
Baden	43	33	110	2, 3, 4, 8, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 20, 26, 28, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34.
Bavaria... ..	73	39	131	All classes but 6, 12, 15, 16, 17, 22, 23, 24, 36.
Hanover	20	21	68	1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 18, 19, 22, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30, 31, 32.
Hesse	48	24	105	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 36.
Prussia... ..	330	233	1189	All classes but 12.
Saxony... ..	66	50	192	All classes but 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 17, 20, 25, 29, 34, 36.
Smaller States... ..	45	37	156	All classes but 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 15, 17, 18, 24, 32, 34, 36.
Wurtemberg	68	40	164	1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 15, 16, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 26, 27, 28 to 33.

RETURN showing the AMOUNT of SPACE ORIGINALLY ALLOTTED to each COUNTRY for the INDUSTRIAL CLASSES, and the SPACE which each COUNTRY ACTUALLY OCCUPIED.

Country.	Gross Horizontal Space originally allotted in Square Feet.	Net Horizontal Space occupied by Goods in Sq. Feet.	Space occupied by Passages in Sq. Feet.	Country.	Gross Horizontal Space originally allotted in Square Feet.	Net Horizontal Space occupied by Goods in Sq. Feet.	Space occupied by Passages in Sq. Feet.
Africa, Central and Western .	1,000	185	376	Spain	5,400	2,563	2,837
Austria	33,000	15,494	17,606	Sweden and Norway ...	8,250	4,556	3,700
Belgium	44,000	12,473	31,527	Switzerland ...	13,200	4,029	9,171
China	5,000	534	1,068	Turkey	5,000	1,374	3,626
Denmark	5,650	2,163	3,487	United States .	30,000	3,242	5,803
France and her Colonies ...	147,300	54,481	92,819	The Zollverein	76,500	33,802	42,698
Greece	800	242	558	Northern Germany ...	4,950	2,069	2,981
Sandwich Islands	27	54	Hanse Towns	4,000	532	2,358
Haiti	146	292	The two Mecklenburgs ...	2,500	2,388	2,806
Italy	15,400	7,905	7,495	Egypt	2,500	746	1,759
Japan	2,000	300	600	America, Central and South	5,000	1,468	3,532
Liberia...	95	180	Great Britain and her Colonies ...	592,152	229,759	406,576
Madagascar	34	68	Total	1,032,352	391,146	662,061
Holland	6,950	2,912	4,038				
Portugal	4,500	1,772	2,728				
Rome	3,000	1,334	1,666				
Russia	14,300	4,648	9,652				

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

25° VICTORIÆ, 1862.

SERIES A.—FINANCE, COMMERCE, AND AGRICULTURE.

UNITED KINGDOM.

CONSOLIDATED FUND.

CAP. I.—*An Act to apply the sum of 973,747*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the service of the year ending the 31st May, 1862.* (10th March, 1862.)

CAP. II.—*An Act to apply the sum of 18,000,000*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the service of the year 1862.* (24th March, 1862.)

EXCHEQUER BILLS.

CAP. III.—*An Act to amend an Act intituled “An Act to amend the law relating to supply Exchequer Bills,” and to charge the same on the Consolidated Fund; and to repeal all provisions by which authority is given to the Commissioners of H. M.’s Treasury to fund Exchequer Bills.* (24th March, 1862.)

The authority to issue Exchequer Bills not to extend beyond the year commencing on the 1st April and ending on the 31st of March immediately following, during which any such Exchequer Bills shall be paid off on duties, and cancelled. The powers to create permanent annuities was repealed. The payment to the Bank of England for the management of the unredeemed public debt in Exchequer Bills to be at the rate of 100*l.* for every million of Exchequer Bills. All Exchequer Bills, and interest thereon, to be charged on the Consolidated Fund.

BLEACHFIELDS.

CAP. VIII.—*An Act to prevent the Employment of Women and Children during the Night in certain operations connected with Bleaching by the open-air process.* (11th April, 1862.)

Women and children not to be employed during the night in any building or premises on which any process previous to packing is carried on in the occupation of bleaching, dyeing, or finishing of any yarn or cloth of cotton, silk, wool, or flax, or any mixture of them, including the occupation of bleaching by the open-air process.

PROTECTION OF INVENTIONS.

CAP. XII.—*An Act for the protection of Inventions and Designs exhibited at the International Exhibition of Industry and Art for the year 1862.* (29th April, 1862.)

The exhibition of any new inventions or designs at the International Exhibition not to prejudice the right of any person to register provisionally such inventions or designs or invalidate any letters patent, or other registration that might have been granted for the same.

25 & 26 VICT.

EXCHEQUER BONDS.

CAP. XIII.—*An Act for raising the sum of 1,000,000*l.* by Exchequer Bonds for the service of the year 1862.* (16th May, 1862.)

CONSOLIDATED FUND.

CAP. XXXI.—*An Act to apply the sum of 10,000,000*l.* out of the Consolidated Fund to the service of the year 1862.* (7th July, 1862.)

CONSOLIDATED FUND APPROPRIATION.

CAP. LXXI.—*An Act to apply a sum out of the Consolidated Fund and the surplus of ways and means to the service of the year 1862, and to appropriate the supplies granted in this session of Parliament.* (7th August, 1862.)

The sums voted in the session were appropriated as follows:—

364,338 <i>l.</i> for Naval services for 1861-2.	11,000 <i>l.</i> for manufacturing departments, &c.
100,000 <i>l.</i> for wages to additional seamen, &c.	27,275 <i>l.</i> for wages.
30,000 <i>l.</i> for provisions, &c.	178,500 <i>l.</i> for clothing and necessaries.
234,338 <i>l.</i> for freight of ships, victualling, and conveyance of troops.	126,900 <i>l.</i> for provisions, &c.
11,794,305 <i>l.</i> for Navy services, viz.:—	170,077 <i>l.</i> for stores for land and sea service.
3,078,121 <i>l.</i> for wages to 76,000 seamen and marines, &c.	7,362 <i>l.</i> for barracks.
1,362,093 <i>l.</i> for victuals, &c., in the Navy.	6,057,522 <i>l.</i> for Army services, viz.:—
170,832 <i>l.</i> for salaries, &c., in Admiralty Office.	766,091 <i>l.</i> for wages of artificers, &c.
297,602 <i>l.</i> for salaries, &c., of Coast Guard, Naval Coast Volunteers, and Naval Reserve.	597,264 <i>l.</i> for clothing and necessaries.
68,045 <i>l.</i> for Navy scientific departments.	1,634,317 <i>l.</i> for provisions, barrack furniture, &c.
176,624 <i>l.</i> for Naval establishments at home.	2,060,276 <i>l.</i> for stores for land and sea service.
33,610 <i>l.</i> for Naval establishments abroad.	24,360 <i>l.</i> for rewards for Military services.
1,147,678 <i>l.</i> for wages of artificers, &c., at home.	77,600 <i>l.</i> for general officers.
66,801 <i>l.</i> for wages of artificers, &c., abroad.	479,722 <i>l.</i> for reduced and retired officers.
1,744,184 <i>l.</i> for Naval stores.	179,876 <i>l.</i> for pensions to widows of officers, and compassionate list.
1,453,561 <i>l.</i> for steam machinery, &c.	35,633 <i>l.</i> for pensions, &c., to wounded officers.
464,170 <i>l.</i> for new works in Naval establishments.	33,923 <i>l.</i> for in-pensioners, &c., of Chelsea and Kilmainham hospitals.
66,000 <i>l.</i> for medicines, &c.	1,156,380 <i>l.</i> for out-pensioners of Chelsea hospital.
98,708 <i>l.</i> for Naval miscellaneous services.	143,364 <i>l.</i> for superannuation and retired allowances.
702,308 <i>l.</i> for Naval half-pay, &c.	296,283 <i>l.</i> for educational and scientific branches.
194,282 <i>l.</i> for civil pensions.	163,491 <i>l.</i> for fortifications.
481,036 <i>l.</i> for Military pensions.	158,128 <i>l.</i> for civil buildings.
188,650 <i>l.</i> for freight of ships, victualling and conveyance of troops, &c.	677,955 <i>l.</i> for barracks.
609,409 <i>l.</i> for Army services for 1861-62.	10,002,828 <i>l.</i> for other Army services, viz.:—
11,785 <i>l.</i> for pay, &c., of land forces.	5,355,596 <i>l.</i> for pay, &c., of land forces exclusive of India.
76,510 <i>l.</i> for miscellaneous charges.	

706,892*l.* for miscellaneous charges of land forces exclusive of India.
 218,167*l.* for volunteer corps.
 209,901*l.* for departments of Secretary for War and Commander in-Chief.
 334,151*l.* for manufacturing departments, &c.
 915,897*l.* for packet service.
 535,834*l.* for superannuations, &c., Customs, Inland Revenue, and Post Office.

CIVIL SERVICES—Class 1.

33,583*l.* for repair of Royal palaces.
 89,510*l.* for maintenance, &c., of public buildings, temporary accommodation, &c.
 14,611*l.* for furniture for public departments.
 86,664*l.* for maintenance, &c., of Royal parks, pleasure grounds, &c.
 32,647*l.* for new houses of Parliament.
 750,980*l.* for disembodied Militia.
 1,000,000*l.* for Exchequer Bonds.
 28,934*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.* to make good deficiency for Post Office services for 1862.
 25,587*l.* to make good deficiency of Post Office packet service for 1862.
 750,000*l.* for Customs department.
 1,382,274*l.* for Inland Revenue department.
 2,081,687*l.* for Post Office, &c.
 5,104*l.* for embassy houses, &c., abroad.
 450*l.* for new Consular offices and prison at Constantinople.
 2,500*l.* for approaches to Westminster Bridge.
 1,231*l.* for Westminster Bridge.
 15,000*l.* for new Foreign office.
 1,250*l.* for temporary accommodation for department for Foreign Affairs.
 10,000*l.* for Industrial Museum, Edinburgh.
 903*l.* for King's and Marischal Colleges, Aberdeen University.
 10,000*l.* for Probate Court and Registries.
 1,705*l.* for National Gallery, Trafalgar-square.
 2,500*l.* for National Gallery, &c., Dublin.
 101,221*l.* for New Packet Harbour and Harbour of Refuge at Holyhead, &c.
 96,342*l.* for erecting, &c., public buildings, Ireland.
 5,000*l.* for New Record Buildings, four courts, Dublin.
 11,994*l.* for erecting, &c., lighthouses abroad.
 20,000*l.* for contributions in aid of poor relief assessments.
 150,000*l.* for Harbours of Refuge.

CIVIL SERVICES—Class 2.

69,646*l.* for salaries, &c., of houses of Parliament.
 52,363*l.* for the Treasury.
 25,856*l.* for the Home department.
 64,319*l.* for Foreign department.
 30,748*l.* for the department of the Colonies.
 20,566*l.* for Privy Council.
 59,787*l.* for Committee of Privy Council for Trade, &c.
 2,760*l.* for Lord Privy Seal.
 6,992*l.* for Civil Service Commission.
 19,800*l.* for Paymaster General's department.

6,565*l.* for department of Comptroller General of Exchequer.

30,839*l.* for offices of Commissioners of Works and Public Buildings.
 26,188*l.* for office of Woods, Forests, &c.
 20,042*l.* for Public Record department and State Paper Office.
 226,123*l.* for administration of Poor Laws.
 62,784*l.* for the Mint.
 26,025*l.* for salaries, &c., of inspectors of factories, mines, &c.
 6,316*l.* for civil charges, &c., Scotland.
 6,431*l.* for officers, &c., of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.
 16,535*l.* for Chief Secretary, &c., Ireland.
 3,587*l.* for inspection, &c., of Lunatic Asylums, Ireland.
 24,301*l.* for Board of Public Works, Ireland.
 32,931*l.* for department of Commissioners for auditing public accounts.
 19,818*l.* for Copyhold, Inclosure, and Tithe Commission.
 12,090*l.* for imprest expenses, &c., of copyhold, inclosure, and tithe commission.
 47,578*l.* for salaries, &c., of general register office, London, Dublin, and Edinburgh.
 14,669*l.* for salaries, &c., national debt office.
 4,120*l.* for salaries, &c., Public Works Loan Commissioners, &c.
 6,958*l.* for lunacy commissioners, England, and salaries, &c., lunacy board, Scotland.
 1,223*l.* for general superintendent of county roads in South Wales.
 2,294*l.* for registrars of friendly societies, England, Scotland, and Ireland.
 17,743*l.* for charity commission.
 6,953*l.* for salaries, &c., of office, under the Local Government Act, and inspection of burial grounds.
 3,232*l.* for collecting agricultural and emigration statistics, Ireland.
 2,268*l.* for salaries in land revenue records and inrolments, London, &c.
 3,044*l.* for quarantine expenses.
 32,000*l.* for foreign and other secret services.
 342,649*l.* for stationery, &c., for public departments.
 115,580*l.* for postage of letters on the public service.

CIVIL SERVICES—Class 3.

30,510*l.* for law charges and office of solicitor to the Treasury, &c.
 167,678*l.* for prosecutions at assizes and quarter sessions, &c.
 228,475*l.* for police in counties and boroughs in England and Wales, and police in Scotland.
 3,098*l.* for Crown office, Queen's Bench.
 11,540*l.* for department of registrar of the Admiralty, and Admiralty Court, Dublin.
 5,501*l.* for Insolvent Debtors' Court.
 78,330*l.* for Court of Probate, &c.
 11,076*l.* for Court of Justiciary, Scotland.
 5,000*l.* for criminal prosecutions by Lord Advocate.
 1,620*l.* for the legal branch of the exchequer in Scotland.

38,231*l.* for criminal prosecutions, &c., in Scotland.
 23,475*l.* for procurators fiscal in Scotland.
 14,330*l.* for sheriff clerks, Scotland.
 2,300*l.* for expenses in matters of tithes, &c.
 15,941*l.* for general register house, Edinburgh.
 165,000*l.* for County Courts.
 21,430*l.* for Police Courts of the metropolis.
 140,443*l.* for metropolitan police.
 3,564*l.* for Queen's prison.
 18,092*l.* for revising barristers, England and Wales.
 3,675*l.* for annuities under Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Act.
 24,287*l.* for compensations, &c., under "The Bankruptcy Act, 1861."
 3,342*l.* for Lord Advocate and Solicitor-General, Scotland.
 18,200*l.* for salaries, Court of Session, Scotland.
 300*l.* for fees to advocates, High Court of Delegates.
 6,893*l.* for salaries, &c., of Court of Bankruptcy, &c., Ireland.
 10,330*l.* for Court of Probate, &c., Ireland.
 11,472*l.* for Landed Estates Court, Ireland.
 1,150*l.* for Consolidated Office of Writs, Dublin.
 420*l.* for revising barristers, Ireland.
 50,600*l.* for salaries of police justices, metropolitan police, &c., Dublin.
 777,368*l.* for constabulary force, Ireland.
 2,717*l.* for four courts Marshalsea, Dublin.
 1,305*l.* for department of commissary clerk, Edinburgh.
 1,490*l.* for department of accountant in bankruptcy, Scotland.
 61,134*l.* for criminal prosecutions, &c., Ireland.
 5,536*l.* for Court of Chancery, Ireland.
 19,052*l.* for Courts of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, &c., Ireland.
 5,932*l.* for registrars to judges, &c., Ireland.
 2,000*l.* for compensations to Seneschals of Manor Courts, Ireland.
 2,314*l.* for office for registration of judgments, Ireland.
 17,410*l.* for general superintendence of prisons, &c.
 350,000*l.* for Government prisons and convict establishments at home.
 227,604*l.* for maintenance of prisoners and removal of convicts.
 30,510*l.* for transportation of convicts.
 142,683*l.* for convict establishments in the Colonies.

CIVIL SERVICES—Class 4.

842,119*l.* for public education, Great Britain.
 116,695*l.* for department of science and art, &c.
 290,904*l.* for public education, Ireland.
 795*l.* for secretary, &c., of Commissioners of Education, Ireland.
 5,473*l.* for University of London.
 20,161*l.* for Scottish Universities.
 2,312*l.* for Queen's University, Ireland.
 4,800*l.* for Queen's Colleges, Ireland.

[456]

500*l.* for Royal Irish Academy.
 2,750*l.* for expenses, purchase of pictures of the National Gallery, Ireland.
 2,500*l.* for theological professors, retired allowances, &c., Belfast.
 99,012*l.* for salaries, &c., at British Museum, including buildings, &c.:—
 11,953*l.* for expenses, purchase of pictures, &c., of the National Gallery.
 1,000*l.* for gallery of portraits of eminent persons.
 7,640*l.* for magnetic observations abroad, &c.
 500*l.* for Royal Geographical Society.
 1,000*l.* for experiments by Royal Society.

CIVIL SERVICES—Class 5.

4,200*l.* for civil establishment, Bermudas.
 6,278*l.* for ecclesiastical establishment of British North American provinces.
 1,438*l.* for Indian department, Canada.
 9,000*l.* for British Columbia.
 55,000*l.* for expenses of resumption of Vancouver's Island by the Crown.
 25,028*l.* for salaries of West Indian and Colonial Governors.
 10,800*l.* for stipendiary justices in West Indies and Mauritius.
 19,634*l.* for civil establishment, West Coast of Africa.
 5,923*l.* for St. Helena.
 700*l.* for Orange River Territory.
 10,000*l.* for improvement of Kaffra, and Government of British Kaffria.
 79,193*l.* for repayment to Treasury Chest of advances for Kaffir police, &c.
 960*l.* for Heligoland.
 3,986*l.* for Falkland Islands.
 4,374*l.* for Labuan.
 300*l.* for Pitcairn's Islanders.
 10,834*l.* for emigration board and officers.
 242,971*l.* for expenses on account of Treasury Chest.
 1,500*l.* for expedition to River Niger.
 55,000*l.* for bounties on slaves, and tonnage bounties, &c.
 10,750*l.* for mixed commissions for suppressing the slave trade.
 167,783*l.* for consular establishments abroad.
 86,748*l.* for establishments in China, Japan, and Siam.
 35,000*l.* for extraordinary disbursements of embassies and missions abroad.
 50,000*l.* for special missions, outfits, &c.
 40,000*l.* for surveying the boundary line in Western part of North America.
 2,827*l.* for salaries of junior attachés to embassies and missions abroad.
 2,600*l.* for Westmoreland Lock Hospital, Dublin.
 700*l.* for Rotunda Lying-in Hospital, Dublin.
 200*l.* for Coombe Lying-in Hospital, Dublin.
 7,600*l.* for Hospitals of House of Industry, Dublin.
 2,500*l.* for House of Recovery and Fever Hospital, Dublin.
 600*l.* for Meath Hospital, Dublin.
 100*l.* for St. Mark's Ophthalmic Hospital, Dublin.
 1,300*l.* for Dr. Steevens' Hospital, Dublin.

245*l.* for Board of Superintendence of Hospitals, Dublin.
9,034*l.* for charitable allowances charged on Concordatum Fund in Ireland, &c.

CIVIL SERVICES—Class 6.

184,706*l.* for superannuation allowances and compensations, public service.
812*l.* for Toulonese and Corsican emigrants, &c.
325*l.* for the Refuge for the Destitute.
3,062*l.* for Polish refugees, &c.
58,700*l.* for pensions to masters and seamen, merchant service, and their widows and children.
20,400*l.* for distressed British seamen abroad.
3,726*l.* for miscellaneous allowances formerly defrayed from civil list, &c.
2,539*l.* for allowances to treasurers of public infirmaries, Ireland.
39,747*l.* for dissenting ministers, Ireland.

CIVIL SERVICES—Class 7.

3,750*l.* for Ecclesiastical Commissioners, England.
15,788*l.* for sundry temporary commissions.

29,088*l.* for fees, &c., under Patent Law Amendment Act.

15,764*l.* for Board of Fisheries, Scotland.

2,000*l.* for annuity to Board of Manufacturers, Scotland.

115,877*l.* for payments of difference of dues payable under treaties of reciprocity.

3,500*l.* for inspectors of corn returns.

1,000*l.* for adjusting boundaries of counties, &c., Ireland.

34,550*l.* for taking the Census.

3,030*l.* for engagements with telegraph companies.

2,647*l.* for telegraphic cable between Malta and Alexandria.

4,645*l.* for expenses formerly paid from civil contingencies.

Supplies to be applied only for the purposes aforesaid.

The expenditure for Navy and Army services respectively to be confined to the separate services for which granted.

The Treasury may, in certain cases of exigency, authorize expenditure unprovided for; provided that the aggregate grants for the Navy services and for the Army services respectively be not exceeded.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

CUSTOMS' AND INLAND REVENUE BILL.

CAP. XXII.—*An Act to continue certain duties of Customs and Inland Revenue for the Service of her Majesty, and to grant, alter, and repeal certain other duties.* (3rd June, 1862.)

Certain duties were granted as specified in the schedule to which the provisions of former Acts shall apply. Licences to brewers to expire on 10th October in every year. Brewer of beer for sale, before obtaining licence, to make declaration under provisions of 5 and 6 W. IV. c. 62, of the quantity of malt and sugar brewed during the previous year. When the licence of brewer of beer for sale exceeds 10*l.* it may be paid in moieties. On the death of a brewer, or on the business being discontinued before the expiration of licence, a proportionate part of the duty may be returned. When the quantity of beer brewed in any year shall be less than the quantity for which the licence was granted, the difference shall be repaid to the brewer; if the quantity be greater he shall be surcharged. Surcharge upon a brewer's first licence to become payable immediately upon death or bankruptcy of the brewer. Brewers of black beer to continue to pay the duties imposed by 6 G. IV. c. 81. Brewers of beer for sale omitting to take out licence to be liable to the duty. Persons brewing beer for other persons to be deemed brewers for sale. Repeal of provisions permitting sale of beer at fairs, &c., without licence. Occasional licence may be granted to victuallers to sell beer, spirits, &c., at such time and place as the commissioners of Inland Revenue shall approve. The charging of Excise duty on sugar used in brewing was deferred until 1st July, 1863. Licences granted under 23 Vict. c. 27, and 23 and 24 Vict. c. 107, may be transferred as other Excise licences in case of the removal of the licensed person. Excise duties and drawbacks on hops cured after the passing of this Act were repealed. Repeal of Customs' duty on hops on 16th September, 1862. Drawbacks on exportation of hops cured before the passing of this Act to cease on 16th

September, 1862. Repeal of Excise penalties imposed upon the use of substitutes for hops. British hops reimported chargeable with duty for six months after 16th September, 1862. Repeal of prohibition on extract of hops. Allowance of 7s. per cwt. on British hops in stock on 15th September, 1862. 9 G. 4, c. 18, granting duties on cards and dice repealed; the duty to be denoted on the wrapper. Cards to be sold in separate packs enclosed in wrappers. Licences to sell cards to be granted. Selling cards without licence liable to a penalty of 20*l*. Hawkers of cards may be apprehended. Selling cards without stamped wrappers prohibited, and the unstamped cards to be forfeited. Name of maker, &c., to be printed on the wrapper. The seller of cards to cancel the stamp on the wrapper. For any frauds relating to wrappers, &c., a penalty was imposed of 20*l*. Unstamped cards may be exported. Penalty for making unstamped bonds. For probate duty bond debts to be assets as if they were simple contract debts. Licences to hawkers with one horse reduced. All licences to hawkers may be half-yearly. Persons intrusted with the payment of dividends, &c., since 5th April, 1862, and before the passing of this Act, to make returns thereof. Dividends, &c., due since 5th April, 1862, to be assessed by special commissioners. Assessors not to be appointed for duties under schedules (A) and (B). Power to appoint more than two collectors of income-tax and assessed taxes for each parish.

SCHEDULES.

RATES AND DUTIES OF CUSTOMS.

The duties of Customs now charged on the articles next mentioned shall continue to be levied and charged on and after the 1st of July, 1862, until the 1st of July, 1863, on importation into Great Britain and Ireland; that is to say,—

Tea (without any allowance for draft) the lb., 1*s*. 5*d*. Sugar, and articles composed thereof, or sweetened therewith, viz.:—Candy (brown or white), refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, the cwt., 18*s*. 4*d*.; white clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined or equal in quality to refined, the cwt., 16*s*.; yellow Muscovado and brown clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to yellow Muscovado or brown clayed, and not equal to white clayed, the cwt., 13*s*. 10*d*.; brown Muscovado or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to yellow Muscovado or brown clayed sugar, the cwt., 12*s*. 8*d*.; Cane juice, the cwt. 10*s*. 4*d*.; Molasses, the cwt., 5*s*. Paste of almonds, dried cherries, dry comfits, confectionery, preserved ginger, marmalade, plums (preserved in sugar), succades (including all fruits and vegetables preserved in sugar not otherwise enumerated), each the lb., 2*d*.

In lieu of the duties of Customs now charged on the articles undermentioned the following duties of customs shall be charged thereon, on importation into Great Britain and Ireland, on and after the 4th of April, 1862.

	Containing less than the following Rates of Proof Spirit, verified by Sykes' Hydrometer, viz. :		If Imported in Bottles, and containing less than 42 Degrees.
	26 Degrees.	42 Degrees.	
	<i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>	<i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>	<i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>
Wine, Red.....the gallon	1 0	2 6	2 6
Ditto, White....."	1 0	2 6	2 6
Lees of such Wine....."	1 0	2 6	2 6

And for every degree of strength beyond the highest above specified an additional duty of 3*d*. per gallon.

No more than 10 per cent. of proof spirit shall be used in the fortifying of any wine in bond; nor shall any wine be fortified in bond to a greater degree of strength than 40 per cent. of such proof spirit.

In lieu of the duties of Customs now charged on the articles undermentioned, the following duties of Customs shall be charged thereon on importation into Great Britain and Ireland, from and after the 1st of September, 1862, viz.:—cards, viz.—playing cards, the dozen packs, 3*s*. 9*d*.

DUTIES AND DRAWBACKS OF EXCISE.

Duties on licences to brewers of beer for sale, to be taken out on and after the 11th of October, 1862.

Upon every licence to be taken out yearly by any brewer of beer for sale:—If the quantity of beer brewed by such brewer within the year ending the 10th of October next preceding the taking out of such licence shall not exceed twenty barrels, the duty of 12s. 6d.; and if the same shall exceed twenty barrels and not exceed fifty barrels, the duty of 1l. 7s. 6d.; and if the same shall exceed fifty barrels, 2l.; and if the same shall exceed one hundred barrels and shall not exceed one thousand barrels, then for every fifty barrels, and for any fractional part or number of an entire quantity of fifty barrels, over and above the first one hundred barrels, the additional duty of 15s.; and if the same shall exceed one thousand barrels, and shall not exceed fifty thousand barrels, then in addition to the duty chargeable in respect of one thousand barrels there shall be charged for every fifty barrels, and for any fractional part or number of an entire quantity of fifty barrels, over and above one thousand barrels, the further duty of 14s.; and if the same shall exceed fifty thousand barrels, then in addition to the duty chargeable in respect of fifty thousand barrels, there shall be charged for every fifty barrels, and for any fractional part or number of an entire quantity of fifty barrels over and above fifty thousand barrels, the further duty of 12s. 6d.; and for and upon every licence to be taken out by any person who shall first become a brewer of beer for sale, the duty of 12s. 6d. And there shall be charged upon and payable by the said last-mentioned person in respect of such licence such further additional sum as, with the said duty of 12s. 6d., shall amount to the duty chargeable on a licence in respect of the like number of barrels of beer brewed by him during the existence of the licence granted to him; and the said additional charge shall be paid within ten days next after the expiration of the said licence. The duties aforesaid to be in lieu of the duties now chargeable on licences to be taken out by brewers of beer for sale.

On a victualler's occasional licence; that is to say,—For and upon every occasional licence to be granted to any person who shall be duly authorized to keep a common inn, alehouse, or victualling house, and licensed to sell therein beer, spirits, wine, or tobacco, to sell the like articles for which he shall be so licensed at any such other place, and for and during such space or period of time not exceeding three days as shall be specified in such occasional licence, the sum of 5s.

Drawback on beer exported; that is to say,—For and in respect of every barrel of thirty-six gallons, and so in proportion for any greater quantity of beer brewed or made by any entered or licensed brewer of beer for sale in the United Kingdom, which, on or after the 11th of October, 1862, shall be exported to foreign parts as merchandise, the sum of 3d., in addition to any drawback now payable by law on beer exported.

STAMP DUTIES.

Every pack of playing cards, the duty of 3d.; every licence to be taken out for selling the same in the United Kingdom,—if he be a maker of playing cards, the duty of 1l.; if he be not a maker of playing cards, the duty of 2s. 6d.

Upon and in respect of any bond, debenture, or other security for money, by whatever name it shall be called, made in the United Kingdom or elsewhere, by or on behalf of any foreign or colonial government, state, or company, and bearing date or signed after the passing of this Act (not being a bill of exchange or promissory note chargeable as such with stamp duty, nor being an instrument already chargeable with the same duty as a bond, or for which a composition in lieu thereof is payable) which shall be issued, delivered, assigned, transferred, or negotiated within the United Kingdom.

Provided that this shall not extend to charge with stamp duty any instrument *bond fide* made and issued at any place out of the United Kingdom as a security for the repayment of money raised or procured on loan in foreign parts, and not lent or advanced by any person resident in the United Kingdom, and the interest whereon shall not be paid within the United Kingdom.

RATES AND DUTIES OF INCOME TAX.

For one year commencing on the 6th of April, 1862, for and in respect of all property, profits, and gains mentioned or described as chargeable in the Act passed in the 16th and 17th years of her Majesty's reign, chap. 34, for granting to her Majesty duties on profits arising from property, professions, trades, and offices, the following rates and duties; that is to say, For every 20s. of the annual value or amount of all such property, profits, and gains (except those chargeable under Schedule (B.) of the said Act), the rate or duty of 9d.; and for and in respect of the occupation of lands, tenements, hereditaments, and heritages chargeable under Schedule (B.) of the said Act, for every 20s. of the annual value thereof,—in England, the rate or duty of 4½d.; and in Scotland and Ireland respectively, the rate or duty of 3d. Subject to the provision contained in the said Act, 16th and 17th Victoria, chap. 34, sect. 28, for the relief of persons whose incomes are under 150l. a year respectively, from so much of the said duties as shall exceed the rate of 6d. for every 20s. of their respective profits and gains, computed as in the said enactment is mentioned, and subject also to the provision therein contained for the exemption of persons whose incomes from every source shall be less than 100l. a year respectively.

PUBLIC WORKS.

CAP. XXX.—*An Act to amend an Act of the last session for authorizing Advances of Money out of the Consolidated Fund for carrying on Public Works and Fisheries for Employment of the Poor, and for facilitating the Construction and Improvement of Harbours, and for other purposes.* (30th June, 1862.)

Instalments may be issued when required for purposes of loans under the 24th and 25th Vict. c. 80, instead of quarterly.

PRIVATE ESTATES OF THE CROWN.

CAP. XXXVII.—*An Act to remove doubts concerning, and to amend the law relating to, the Private Estates of her Majesty, her heirs and successors.* (17th July, 1862.)

The restrictions of 1 Anne c. 7, and 1 G. III. c. 1, and 34 G. III. c. 73, not to extend to the private estates of the sovereign. Leasehold estates other than in Scotland to be vested in trustees, and the private estates of the sovereign in Scotland, held under a superior or on lease, to be vested in trustees. The private estates of her Majesty, her heirs and successors, may be disposed of in the manner provided by the 4th sect. of 39 and 40 G. III. c. 38, but the will shall not require publication, and every such will to take effect as if it had been executed immediately before the death of the testator or testatrix unless a contrary intention shall appear by the will or other testamentary disposition. The private estates of the sovereign to be subject to taxes to be paid out of the privy purse.

SALE OF SPIRITS.

CAP. XXXVIII.—*An Act to amend the laws relating to the Sale of Spirits.* (17th July, 1862.)

Repeal of a clause in 24 G. II., c. 40, enacting that no action should be brought to recover any debt for spirituous liquors, unless contracted at one time to the amount of 20s.

COPYRIGHT IN WORKS OF FINE ART.

CAP. LXVIII.—*An Act for amending the law relating to Copyright in works of the Fine Arts, and for repressing the Commission of Fraud in the production and sale of such works.* (29th July, 1862.)

Copyright in paintings, drawings, and photographs to vest in author during life and seven years. Not to prevent the representation of scenes or objects previously represented. Copyright personal property. Assignments and licences, &c. to be in writing. Registers of proprietors of such copyright to be kept at Stationers' Hall. The several enactments of 6th Vict. to apply to said registers. Penalties were imposed on certain frauds in the production and sale of works of fine art, whether copyright or not. The superior courts in actions pending therein may make orders for injunctions, &c. The importation of pirated copies prohibited; such copies to be seized at Customs. Saving of action for damages. The provisions of 7 and 8 Vict. c. 12, to be included in this Act.

CLAUSE 6.—If the author of any painting, drawing, or photograph in which there shall be subsisting copyright, after having sold or disposed of such copyright, or if any other person not being the proprietor for the time being of copyright in any painting, drawing, or photograph, shall, without the consent of such proprietor, repeat, copy, colourably imitate, or

otherwise multiply for sale, hire, exhibition, or distribution, or cause or procure to be repeated, copied, colourably imitated, or otherwise multiplied for sale, hire, exhibition, or distribution, any such work or the design thereof, or, knowing that any such repetition, copy, or other imitation has been unlawfully made, shall import into any part of the United Kingdom, or sell, publish, let to hire, exhibit, or distribute, or offer for sale, hire, exhibition, or distribution, or cause or procure to be imported, sold, published, let to hire, distributed, or offered for sale, hire, exhibition, or distribution, any repetition, copy, or imitation of the said work, or the design thereof, made without such consent as aforesaid, such person, for every such offence, shall forfeit to the proprietor of the copyright for the time being a sum not exceeding 10*l*.; and all such repetitions, copies, and imitations made without such consent as aforesaid, and all negatives of photographs made for the purpose of obtaining such copies, shall be forfeited to the proprietor of the copyright.

CLAUDE 7.—No person shall do, or cause to be done, any or either of the following acts; that is to say.—First, no person shall fraudulently sign or otherwise affix, or fraudulently cause to be signed or otherwise affixed, to or upon any painting, drawing, or photograph, or the negative thereof, any name, initials, or monogram. Secondly, no person shall fraudulently sell, publish, exhibit, or dispose of, or offer for sale, exhibition, or distribution, any painting, drawing, or photograph, or negative of a photograph, having thereon the name, initials, or monogram, of a person who did not execute or make such work. Thirdly, no person shall fraudulently utter, dispose of, or put off, or cause to be uttered or disposed of, any copy or colourable imitation of any painting, drawing, or photograph, or negative of a photograph, whether there shall be subsisting copyright therein or not, as having been made or executed by the author or maker of the original work from which such copy or imitation shall have been taken. Fourthly, where the author or maker of any painting, drawing, or photograph, or negative of a photograph, made either before or after the passing of this Act, shall have sold or otherwise parted with the possession of such work, if any alteration shall afterwards be made therein by any other person, by addition or otherwise, no person shall be at liberty, during the life of the author or maker of such work, without his consent, to make, or knowingly to sell or publish, or offer for sale, such work or any copies of such work so altered as aforesaid, or of any part thereof, as or for the unaltered work of such author or maker. Every offender under this section shall, upon conviction, forfeit to the person aggrieved a sum not exceeding 10*l*., or not exceeding double the full price, if any, at which all such copies, engravings, imitations, or altered works shall have been sold or offered for sale; and all such copies, engravings, imitations, or altered works shall be forfeited to the person, or the assigns or legal representatives of the person, whose name, initials, or monogram shall be so fraudulently signed or affixed thereto, or to whom such spurious or altered work shall be so fraudulently or falsely ascribed as aforesaid: provided always, that the penalties imposed by this section shall not be incurred unless the person whose name, initials, or monogram shall be so fraudulently signed or affixed, or to whom such spurious or altered work shall be so fraudulently or falsely ascribed as aforesaid, shall have been living at or within twenty years next before the time when the offence may have been committed.

CLAUDE 11.—If the author of any painting, drawing or photograph, in which there shall be subsisting copyright, after having sold or otherwise disposed of such copyright, or if any other person, not being the proprietor for the time being of such copyright, shall, without the consent of such proprietor, repeat, copy, colourably imitate, or otherwise multiply, or cause or procure to be repeated, copied, colourably imitated, or otherwise multiplied, for sale, hire, exhibition, or distribution, any such work or the design thereof, or the negative of any such photograph, or shall import or cause to be imported into any part of the United Kingdom, or sell, publish, let to hire, exhibit, or distribute, or offer for sale, hire, exhibition, or distribution, or cause or procure to be sold, published, let to hire, exhibited, or distributed, or offered for sale, hire, exhibition, or distribution, any repetition, copy, or imitation of such work, or the design thereof, or the negative of any such photograph, made without such consent as aforesaid, then every such proprietor, in addition to the remedies hereby given for the recovery of any such penalties, and forfeiture of any such things as aforesaid, may recover damages by and in a special action on the case, to be brought against the person so offending, and may in such action recover and enforce the delivery to him of all unlawful repetitions, copies, and imitations, and negatives of photographs, or may recover damages for the retention or conversion thereof: provided that nothing herein contained, nor any proceeding, conviction, or judgment, for any act hereby forbidden, shall affect any remedy which any person aggrieved by such act may be entitled to, either at law or in equity.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

EXCISE ON SUGAR.

CAP. LXXXIV.—*An Act to continue the Duties of Excise on Sugar made in the United Kingdom, and to amend the Laws relating to the Duties of Excise.* (7th August, 1864.)

Excise duties on British sugar continued until 1st July, 1863.

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[461]

Act 23 and 24 Vict., c. 114, not to affect any other duties than the excise duties on spirits.

INDUSTRIAL AND PROVIDENT SOCIETIES.

CAP. LXXXVII.—*An Act to consolidate and amend the Laws relating to Industrial and Provident Societies.* (7th August, 1862.)

Any number of persons not being less than seven may establish a society for the purpose of carrying on any labour, trade, or handicraft, except the working of mines, the business of banking, and applying the profits for any purposes allowed by the Friendly Societies' Act or otherwise permitted by law.

The rules must be registered, and the certificate of registration vests all property on the society, which may be vested in any person in trust for the society. Copy of rules to be remitted to each member. No member's interest to exceed the sum of 200*l.* Every society so registered must publish its name, with the word "limited" as the last word. Each member to continue liable for one year.

MERCHANDIZE TRADE MARKS.

CAP. LXXXVIII.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the fraudulent marking of Merchandize.* (7th August, 1862.)

Forging a trade-mark, or falsely applying any trade-mark with intent to defraud, a misdemeanour. Applying a forged trade-mark to any vessel—case, wrapper, &c., in or with which any article is sold, or intended to be sold, a misdemeanour. Knowingly selling articles with forged or false trade-mark, subject to a penalty equal to the value of articles sold, and a sum not exceeding 5*l.* nor less than 10*s.* Additions to, and alterations of, trade-marks, made with intent to defraud, to be deemed forgeries. Any person who shall have sold an article having a false trade-mark to be bound to give information where he procured it. Marking any false indication of quantity, measure, or weight, upon an article, with intent to defraud, subject to a penalty of a sum equal to the value of the article, and further sum not exceeding 5*l.* and not less than 10*s.* Knowingly selling, or exposing for sale, after the 31st December, 1863, articles, with false statements of quantities, &c., penalty not more than 5*l.* or less than 5*s.* It shall not be an offence to apply names or words known to be used for indicating particular classes of manufactures. A conviction not to affect any right or civil remedy. An intent to defraud any particular person need not be alleged in an indictment, &c., or proved. After the 31st December, 1863, the vendor of an article with a trade-mark to be deemed to contract that the mark is genuine. And vendor of an article, with description upon it of its quantity, to be deemed to contract that the description was true. Persons aggrieved by forgeries may receive damages against the guilty parties.

The following is the definition of trade-marks in the first clause of the statute:—The word "mark" shall include any name, signature, word, letter, device, emblem, figure, sign, seal, stamp, diagram, label, ticket, or other mark of any other description; and the expression "trade-mark" shall include any and every such name, signature, word, letter, device, emblem, figure, sign, seal, stamp, diagram, label, ticket, or other mark as aforesaid lawfully used by any person to denote any chattel, or (in Scot-

land) any article of trade, manufacture, or merchandise, to be an article or thing of the manufacture, workmanship, production, or merchandise of such person, or to be an article or thing of any peculiar or particular description made or sold by such person, and shall also include any name, signature, word, letter, number, figure, mark, or sign which, in pursuance of any statute or statutes for the time being in force relating to registered designs, is to be put or placed upon or attached to any chattel or article during the existence or continuance of any copyright or other sole right acquired under the provisions of such statutes or any of them; the word "misdemeanour" shall include crime and offence in Scotland; and the word "court" shall include any sheriff or sheriff substitute in Scotland.

COMPANIES.

CAP. LXXXIX.—*An Act for the Incorporation, Regulation, and Winding-up of Trading Companies and other Associations.* (7th August, 1862.)

No company of more than ten persons shall be formed for banking purposes, unless registered; and no company of more than twenty persons for any business, that has for its object the acquisition of gain, to be formed, unless registered under this Act, or in pursuance of some other act, or is a company for working mines, with the jurisdiction of the stannaries. Any seven or more persons may form a company with or without limited liability, by subscribing their names to a memorandum of association. The liability may be limited to the amount of any unpaid of the shares, or to such amount as the members may undertake. In a limited liability the memorandum of association (that is to say):—

(1.) The name of the proposed company, with the addition of the word "limited" as the last word in such name. (2.) The part of the United Kingdom, whether England, Scotland, or Ireland, in which the registered office of the company is proposed to be situate. (3.) The objects for which the proposed company is to be established. (4.) A declaration that the liability of the members is limited. (5.) The amount of capital with which the company proposes to be registered, divided into shares of a certain fixed amount.

Subject to the following regulations:—

(1.) That no subscriber shall take less than one share. (2.) That each subscriber of the memorandum of association shall write opposite to his name the number of shares he takes.

The memorandum of association of a company limited must contain the following things (that is to say):—

(1.) The name of the proposed company, with the addition of the word "limited" as the last word in such name. (2.) The part of the United Kingdom, whether England, Scotland, or Ireland, in which the registered office of the company is proposed to be situate. (3.) The objects for which the proposed company is to be established. (4.) A declaration that each member undertakes to contribute to the assets of the company, in the event of the same being wound up, during the time that he is a member, or within one year afterwards, for payment of the debts and liabilities of the company contracted before the time at which he ceases to be a member, and of the costs, charges, and expenses of winding up the company, and for the adjustment of the rights of the contributories amongst themselves, such amount as may be required, not exceeding a specified amount.

The memorandum of association of an unlimited company must contain—

(1.) The name of the proposed company. (2.) The part of the United Kingdom, whether England, Scotland, or Ireland, in which the registered office of the company is proposed to be situate. (3.) The object for which the proposed company is to be established.

The articles of association must be signed and registered and must be printed, and stamped, and signed by each subscriber duly attested, and, when completed, the memorandum and articles must be sent to the registrar,

who will register the same, by which the company becomes a body corporate, capable of exercising all the functions of an incorporate company. No company to be registered under a name identical with that of a subsisting company. The shares are held to be personal estate and transferable. The subscriber to the memorandum to be deemed to be a member of the company. Every company must keep one or more register of members, and must make an annual list of members, specifying the following particulars:—

(1.) The amount of the capital of the company, and the number of shares into which it is divided. (2.) The number of shares taken from the commencement of the company up to the date of the summary. (3.) The amount of calls made on each share. (4.) The total amount of calls received. (5.) The total amount of calls unpaid. (6.) The total amount of shares forfeited. (7.) The names, addresses, and occupations of the persons who have ceased to be members since the last list was made, and the number of shares held by each of them.

There is a penalty for not keeping a proper register. The register must be kept open, at least, two hours in each day. In case of any increase of capital and of members, notice must be given to the registrar.

In case the company is wound up, the liability of past members is regulated as follows:—

(1.) No past member shall be liable to contribute to the assets of the company if he has ceased to be a member for a period of one year or upwards prior to the commencement of the winding-up. (2.) No past member shall be liable to contribute in respect of any debt or liability of the company contracted after the time at which he ceased to be a member. (3.) No past member shall be liable to contribute to the assets of the company unless it appears to the court that the existing members are unable to satisfy the contributions required to be made by them in pursuance of this act. (4.) In the case of a company limited by shares, no contribution shall be required from any member exceeding the amount, if any, unpaid on the shares in respect of which he is liable as a present or past member. (5.) In the case of a company limited by guarantee, no contribution shall be required from any member exceeding the amount of the undertaking entered into on his behalf by the memorandum of association. (6.) Nothing in this Act contained shall invalidate any provision contained in any policy of insurance or other contract whereby the liability of individual members upon any such policy or contract is restricted, or whereby the funds of the company are alone made liable in respect of such policy or contract. (7.) No sum due to any member of a company, in his character of a member, by way of dividends, profits, or otherwise, shall be deemed to be a debt of the company, payable to such member in a case of competition between himself and any other creditor not being a member of the company; but any such sum may be taken into account, for the purposes of the final adjustment of the rights of the contributories amongst themselves.

Every company must have a registered office, and every limited company must publish its name and keep its name painted or affixed upon the outside of its office, and on all bills, invoices, &c., subject to penalties for the non-publication and personal liability to writers on the part of the manager. The company to keep a register of mortgages. No business carried on by the company when the number of members is reduced below seven. The company has power to alter any of the regulations of the company by a special resolution which is defined as follows:—

CLAUSE 51.—A resolution passed by a company under this Act shall be deemed to be special whenever a resolution has been passed by a majority of not less than three-fourths of such members of the company for the time being entitled, according to the regulations of the company, to vote as may be present, in person or by proxy (in cases where by the regulations of the company proxies are allowed), at any general meeting of which notice specifying the intention to propose such resolution has been duly given, and such resolution has been confirmed by a majority of such members for the time being entitled, according to the regulations of the company, to vote as may be present, in person or by proxy, at a subsequent general meeting, of which notice has been duly given, and held at an interval of not less than fourteen days, nor more than one month from the date of the meeting at which such resolution was first passed: at any meeting mentioned in this section, unless a poll is demanded by at least five members, a declaration of the chairman that the resolution has been carried shall be deemed conclusive evidence of the fact, without proof of the number or proportion of the votes recorded in favour of or against the same: notice of any meeting shall,

for the purposes of this section, be deemed to be duly given and the meeting to be duly held, whenever such notice is given and meeting held in manner prescribed by the regulations of the company: in computing the majority under this section, when a poll is demanded, reference shall be had to the number of votes to which each member is entitled by the regulations of the company.

Unless otherwise provided, every member has one vote. A copy of any special resolution must be forwarded to the registrar. The Board of Trade may appoint inspectors to examine the affairs of the company:—

(1.) In the case of a banking company that has a capital divided into shares, upon the application of members holding not less than one-third part of the whole shares of the company for the time being issued. (2.) In the case of any other company that has a capital divided into shares, upon the application of members holding not less than one-fifth part of the whole shares of the company for the time being issued. (3.) In the case of any company not having a capital divided into shares upon the application of members being in number not less than one-fifth of the whole number of persons for the time being entered on the register of the company as members.

The result of the examination must be laid in a report to the Board of Trade.

The company also may appoint inspectors for the same purpose.

Regulations are afterwards made for the winding-up of companies:—

(1.) Whenever the company has passed a special resolution requiring the company to be wound up by the court. (2.) Whenever the company does not commence its business within a year from its incorporation, or suspends its business for the space of a whole year. (3.) Whenever the members are reduced in number to less than seven. (4.) Whenever the company is unable to pay its debts. (5.) Whenever the court is of opinion that it is just and equitable that the company should be wound up.

A company under this Act shall be deemed to be unable to pay its debts—

(1.) Whenever a creditor, by assignment or otherwise, to whom the company is indebted, at law or in equity, in a sum exceeding fifty pounds then due, has served on the company, by leaving the same at their registered office, a demand under his hand requiring the company to pay the sum so due, and the company has for the space of three weeks succeeding the service of such demand neglected to pay such sum, or to secure or compound for the same to the reasonable satisfaction of the creditor. (2.) Whenever, in England and Ireland, execution or other process issued on a judgment, decree, or order obtained in any court in favour of any creditor, at law or in equity, in any proceeding instituted by such creditor against the company, is returned unsatisfied in whole or in part. (3.) Whenever, in Scotland, the inducia of a charge for payment on an extract decree, or an extract registered bond, or an extract registered protest have expired without payment being made. (4.) Whenever it is proved to the satisfaction of the court that the company is unable to pay its debts.

The court, then, has the power to stay all proceedings, to make calls, to appoint official liquidators, and to adjust the rights of contributories.

A company may be wound up voluntarily:—

(1.) Whenever the period, if any, fixed for the duration of the company by the articles of association expires, or whenever the event, if any, occurs, upon the occurrence of which it is provided by the articles of association that the company is to be dissolved, and the company in general meeting has passed a resolution requiring the company to be wound up voluntarily. (2.) Whenever the company has passed a special resolution requiring the company to be wound up voluntarily. (3.) Whenever the company has passed an extraordinary resolution to the effect that it has been proved to their satisfaction that the company cannot by reason of its liabilities continue its business, and that it is advisable to wind up the same. For the purposes of this Act any resolution shall be deemed to be extraordinary which is passed in such manner as would, if it had been confirmed by a subsequent meeting, have constituted a special resolution, as herein-before defined.

The following consequences ensue upon the voluntary winding-up of a company:—

(1.) The property of the company shall be applied in satisfaction of its liabilities, *pari passu*, and, subject thereto, shall, unless it be otherwise provided by the regulations of the company, be distributed amongst the members according to their rights and interests in the

company. (2.) Liquidators shall be appointed for the purpose of winding up the affairs of the company and distributing the property. (3.) The company in general meeting shall appoint such persons or person as it thinks fit to be liquidators or a liquidator, and may fix the remuneration to be paid to them or him. (4.) If one person only is appointed, all the provisions herein contained in reference to several liquidators shall apply to him. (5.) Upon the appointment of liquidators all the power of the directors shall cease, except in so far as the company in general meeting or the liquidators may sanction the continuance of such powers. (6.) When several liquidators are appointed, every power hereby given may be exercised by such one or more of them, as may be determined at the time of their appointment, or in default of such determination by any number not less than two. (7.) The liquidators may, without the sanction of the court, exercise all powers by this Act given to the official liquidator. (8.) The liquidators may exercise the powers herein-before given to the court of settling the list of contributories of the company, and any list so settled shall be *prima facie* evidence of the liability of the persons named therein to be contributories. (9.) The liquidators may at any time after the passing of the resolution for winding up the company, and before they have ascertained the sufficiency of the assets of the company, call on all or any of the contributories for the time being settled on the list of contributories to the extent of their liability to pay all or any sums they deem necessary to satisfy the debts, and liabilities of the company and the costs, charges, and expenses of winding it up, and for the adjustment of the rights of the contributories, amongst themselves, and the liquidators may in making a call take into consideration the probability that some of the contributories upon whom the same is made may partly or wholly fail to pay their respective portions of the same. (10.) The liquidators shall pay the debts of the company, and adjust the rights of the contributories amongst themselves.

A company may also be wound up subject to the supervision of the court in which case the court may appoint additional liquidators.

CLAUSE 165.—Where, in the course of the winding-up of any company under this Act, it appears that any past or present director, manager, or officer of such company has misapplied or retained in his own hands, or become liable or accountable for any moneys of the company, or been guilty of any misfeasance or breach of trust in relation to the company, the court may, on the application of the liquidators, or of any creditor or contributory of the company, notwithstanding that the offence is one for which the offender is criminally responsible, examine into the conduct of such director, manager, or other officer, and compel him to repay any moneys so misapplied or retained, or for which he has become liable or accountable, together with interest, after such rate as the court thinks just, or to contribute such sums or money to the assets of the company, by way of compensation in respect of such misapplication, retainer, misfeasance, or breach of trust, as the court thinks just.

CLAUSE 166.—If any director, officer, or contributory of any company wound up under this Act destroys, mutilates, alters, or falsifies any books, papers, writings, or securities, or makes or is privy to the making of any false or fraudulent entry in any register, book of account, or other document belonging to the company, with intent to defraud or deceive any person, every person so offending shall be deemed to be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon being convicted shall be liable to imprisonment for any term not exceeding two years; with or without hard labour.

GREAT BRITAIN.

COAL MINES.

CAP. LXXIX.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to Coal Mines.* (7th August, 1862.)

No mine to be worked unless there are in communication with every seam of such mine, at least, two shafts or outlets, separated by natural strata of not less than ten feet in breadth. If owner objects to comply with this obligation a reference shall be made to arbitration.

ENGLAND.

TRANSFER OF LAND.

CAP. LIIL.—*An Act to facilitate the proof of Title to, and the Conveyance of, Real Estates.* (29th July, 1862.)

The act applies to England only. It establishes a registry of the title to landed estates, confined to estates of freehold tenure and leasehold estates

in freehold land. Applications may be made by the owners of the fee-simple, persons who have the power of appointing the fee-simple, trustees for sale, owner of the first estate, any purchaser, any person authorized by the Court of Chancery. On application, the title is examined, and no title is accepted unless it be a valid marketable title. If found to be so, the judge to make a declaration of the validity of title. The applicant must exhibit an accurate description of the land. Statement of the persons entitled, and of mortgages, charges. Cause may be shown against registration, and registrar may either decide on the objection or refer the same to the judge. If there be no objection, complete registration may be granted. The registrar to keep a register of estates, with an indefeasible title to contain a descriptive map or plan, and he will have a "record of title to lands on the registry," with a register of the estates, powers, and interests, in the land; and also a register of mortgages and incumbrances. These books may be inspected. Exceptions may be entered on the record of titles. Persons described in this record of title to be deemed to be possessed of and entitled to the estates. The registrar may refuse registration. Application for registration may also be made by any person without an indefeasible title. Leasehold estates may be registered. Land taxes, tithe rents, payable to the crown, public rights of way, liability for highway repairs, water courses, &c., not to be deemed charges. Lands may be registered as one estate, or as a separate estate. Notice of registration of land to be given by the registrar to interested persons. Every estate of interest, the trust, mortgage, lieu, charge, right to be entered in record of title after registration. Caveat may be lodged with registrar to the effect that cautioner is entitled to notice. After caveat no registration to be made of lands till ten days after notice. Application may be made to the Court of Chancery to direct registration of title. Sales of land may be made by the court with an indefeasible title, and the court shall provide for examination of title before making the order for sale.

All registered land may be conveyed—1st, by a statutory disposition; 2nd, by endorsement on the land certificate; 3rd, by deposit of the land certificate; 4th, by any deed, will, judgment, decree, or instrument, by which such land might now be conveyed; but no equitable mortgage, or lieu, on registered land to be created by a deposit of title-deeds. The parties must attend at the office to complete the transaction, and the registrar will deliver a land certificate, the same to be evidence. The land described in such certificate may be conveyed or charged by endorsement. Notice of any instrument or transfer must be sent to the registrar, and every transaction to be thereafter registered in it. Transfer of land may be restricted to certain cases. Registrar and other officers to be appointed, and power granted, to collect fees, &c.

DECLARATION OF TITLE.

CAP. LXVII.—*An Act for obtaining a Declaration of Title.* (29th July 1862.)

Parties claiming to be entitled to land may petition Court of Chancery for declaration of title.

CONFIRMATION OF SALES.

CAP. CVIII.—*An Act to confirm certain Sales, Exchanges, Partitions, and Enfranchisements by Trustees and others.* (7th August, 1862.)

IRELAND.

TRANSFER OF STOCK AND ANNUITIES.

CAP. XXI.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the Transfer of Stock and Annuities transferable at the Bank of Ireland.* (16th May, 1864.)

Section 1 of 24 and 25 Vict. c. 35 repealed and other provisions, as to the time of closing the books for the transfer of stocks, &c., at the Bank of Ireland prior to the payments of dividends made.

LANDED PROPERTY IMPROVEMENT.

CAP. XXIX.—*An Act to amend and enlarge the Acts for the Improvement of Landed Property in Ireland.* (30th June, 1862.)

Commissioners of public works to make additional loans for any sum not exceeding 3000*l.*, to any one owner in addition to the sum already advanced.

SAVINGS BANKS.

CAP. LXXV.—*An Act to revive and continue an Act for amending the Laws relative to Savings Banks in Ireland.* (7th August, 1862.)

SCOTLAND.

MOVEABLE PROPERTY.

CAP. LXXXV.—*An Act to facilitate the transmission of Moveable Property in Scotland.* (7th August, 1862.)

A personal bond or conveyance of moveable estate may be assigned. An assignation shall be validly intimated by a notary public, by the holder of such assignation, or a certificate of such notary, or a written acknowledgment by such a person, to be sufficient evidence of such intimation having been duly made.

SALMON FISHERIES.

CAP. XCVII.—*An Act to regulate and amend the Law respecting the Salmon Fisheries of Scotland.* (7th August, 1862.)

Each river and estuary, and the seacoasts adjoining, to be a district. Three commissioners to be appointed to be paid at a rate not exceeding three pounds per day, to fix the natural bound of each river and district, to make general regulations, &c. The annual close time to continue 168 days, and the weekly close time from Saturday night at six o'clock to Monday morning at six. Penalties were established for offences. The commissioners to make bye-laws and reports.

SLAVE TRADE.

Correspondence with the British Commissioners at Sierra Leone, Havana, the Cape of Good Hope, and Loanda, and Report from British Vice-Admiralty Courts, and from British Naval Officers, relating to the Slave Trade from January 1 to December 31, 1861. Class A.

From Sierra Leone her Majesty's judge of Sierra Leone reported, on the 31st December, 1860, that no slaves had been emancipated, and none have been registered during the half-year ended that day, and that no case came before the mixed courts. Only three vessels had been captured on suspicion of being engaged in the slave trade. The same report was made on the 30th June, 1861. But, on the 30th September, her Majesty's judge reported that one case had been adjudicated. During the year 7 vessels had been condemned. The total number of cases adjudicated by the mixed courts up to that date was 533, and the number of slaves registered 56,935.

From Havana, her Majesty's commissary judge reported, on the 5th February, 1861, that the slave trade continued to be carried on upon the most extensive scale:—

The vessels employed in carrying on the slave trade have mostly been American-built ships well known for their sailing qualities being, of course, preferred, and these were sought after and purchased here and elsewhere, their fittings and Spanish crews were put on board here and at the out-ports, or neighbouring cays, whence they produced on their voyage to Africa; but, since the year 1858, when there was such outcry about our cruisers in these waters boarding American ships, the traffic has been almost exclusively carried on by vessels under that flag, which fit out and sail from the United States, and such has been the effect of the impunity enjoyed by the slave-traders, that the American masters and crews no longer hesitate to continue on board, and have brought all their energies and cunning into operation to avoid their own Government cruisers, as well on the coast of Africa as in the waters of Cuba, from the last mentioned of which all her Majesty's vessels of war have been withdrawn for the last two years. The number of Spanish ships has consequently become small that are engaged in the traffic. Under the flags of other nations there are slavers now and then, such nationality being assumed for the purpose of evading her Majesty's and the United States' cruisers.

The difficulty the slaves have to contend with is, their capture on the coast of Africa. There is, I believe, no instance of a slaver escaping with her cargoe from thence, being unable to effect a landing here. Some few, it is true, have been fallen in with, and captured by Spanish ships of war; but, with these exceptions, they have always been able to bribe the local authorities; and, although the head or blood-money which it costs them to land their slaves, is an enormous tax, the price obtained for Bozals has been such, for some time past, as is highly remunerative.

Lucumis have averaged 1200 dollars each at the place of landing, so there is a large margin for the adventurer wherewith to meet the expenses, which I thus estimate:—

Cost of vessel and provisions, 25,000 dols.; cost of 500 negroes at 50 dols., 25,000 dols.; 10 per cent. mortality, 2500 dols.; wages and gratifications to master and crew, 30,000 dols.; blood-money for landing 450 slaves, at 120 dols. each, 54,000 dols.: one year's interest till paid, at

10 per cens. per annum, 13,650 dols. : total, 150,150. Sale of 450 slaves at 1200 dols. each, 540,000 dols. ; profit on the adventure, 389,850.

But the actual outlay in case a slaver is captured empty, but fully equipped, is only the cost of the ship, provisions and interest thereon, say, 27,500 dollars, because the wages and gratifications are contingent, payable only if the adventure is successful; the loss by capture with negroes on board would amount to 55,000 dollars, and no more. Consequently, it will be evident that the safety of one adventure amply repays the slave-traders for the loss of ten of his vessels if taken without slaves on board, or for five which may be captured after shipment of the negroes at the coast, facts which sufficiently account for the increase and continuance of this detestable traffic.

I have shown the temptations there are for launching into the African slave trade; that the slaver can suffer ten captures of ships equipped, or five of the ships with the negroes on board, for one successful adventure. I have shown how one successful adventure enriches the Spanish authorities, who connive at the traffic, consequently demonstrating the interest they feel in its continuance; and that the Island of Cuba is now the only market for slaves in the western world.

The Government of Spain, if resolved to put an end to the slave trade, and fulfil their obligations to Great Britain under the treaty for its suppression, has the means here at command. They can do it whenever they please, and it would not affect their dominion of the island, nor endanger its safety as a dependency of her Catholic Majesty. Nor is it a wise policy which is practised by Spain in conniving at the introduction of slaves, and the continued infractions of the law and the treaty for the suppression of that unholy traffic. On the contrary, I think that the calculations which I am bound to adduce will prove, that it must be productive of the most ruinous consequences, and that the Cubans cannot compete, in the growth and manufacture of sugar, with the free labour of the British Islands.

The present cost price of the Bozal negro is 1200 dollars. This is the basis of the following note of the annual cost of a slave so paid for, viz. :—

Interest at 15 per cent., 180 dollars; mortality, 25 per cent., 300 dollars; 1½ years' instruction divided over 20 years, estimated duration of life, 7½ per cent. of cost, 90 dollars; food, clothing, and medical attendance, at 10 dollars a month, 120 dollars: cost of a year's slave labour, 690: or 57 dollars 50 cents. a month, equal to 11*l.* 10*d.*, or 8*s.* 10*d.* for each of the 313 working days in the year! I respectfully submit that no agricultural produce will be sufficient for such wages, and that ruin must follow to all who are engaged in such enterprises.

The advocates of slavery will say, perhaps, that the above calculation is extravagant. My answer is, that the price has of late been very currently paid for Bozal negroes; that money cannot be raised by the planters so cheap as 15 per cent. per annum; that the mortality frequently exceeds 25 per cent., and is seldom less; that the period for instruction is not over-rated, and is founded on information I have obtained from experienced planters; and that, at the most exorbitant prices of every necessary here, the slaves cannot be clothed, fed, and attended to for less than my estimate. Turn we, then, to an estimate of the cost of labour by the Chinese coolies, of which I do myself the honour of presenting the following estimate:—Cost of a contract for eight years, 340 dollars; interest

at 15 per cent. on year, 51 dollars; wages 4 dollars, food, clothing, and medical attendance 10 dollars, 168 dollars; mortality, 5 per cent., 17 dollars; instructions, 6 months on 8 years, 21 dollars: total, annual cost of labour, 257 dollars, or 21 dollars 41 cents., or 4*l.* 5*s.* 9*d.* per month, equal to about 3*s.* 3*d.* a day, of the 313 working days there are in a year, which compares very unfavourably with the price of labour in her Majesty's West India colonies. It is possible that, if her Catholic Majesty's Government could be convinced of the gradual, but no less certain, ruin of the whole agricultural interests in Cuba to which such wrong policy must lead, they would issue orders to be carried into effect, at all hazards, for suppression of the slave trade.

The slaves are worked on Sundays as well as week days; so, for them there are 365 days in the year, which reduces the cost of their labour to their masters to 7*s.* 6*d.* a day. Reducing the allowance for death to 10 per cent., which is very much under the mark for new negroes, the cost of labour on 365 days in the year comes to 5*s.* 6*d.* a day. Putting the cost of the Bozal at 600 dollars, or half of what has of late been currently paid by the planters, and mortality at 10 per cent., the slave labour comes to 3*s.* 6*d.* a day. On the above calculations there is no allowance for sickness, &c., and the most intelligent planters rate this at 1 and 1½ days a week.

From the Cape of Good Hope, the Commissioners reported that the accounts received from the east coast of Africa during the year now about to expire, all tend to show that the slave trade continues to be carried on to a very considerable extent. From the Portuguese possessions to the southward we have no particular accounts, beyond a statement, on good authority, to the effect that the neighbourhood of Quillimane is, as it were, depopulated by the exportation of so-called free emigrants to the French settlements; a practice which our informant expects would continue, inasmuch as M. da Cruz Coimbra, the agent for these transactions, was again absent on a visit to the Island of Réunion, for the purpose, as was supposed, of entering into arrangements for their continuance. The principal traffic from the Portuguese possessions to the northward of 13 degrees south latitude, is in slaves, who are shipped at a cost of about 30 dollars a-head. At Ibo, Point Paganè, Matemo, Lambuo, Quisangra, and Quirimba, from 5000 to 6000 slaves were seen ready for embarkation. At the settlement also at Pomba Bay, established by Captain Romero, in 1858, we are informed that there is no traffic carried on except in slaves, who are kidnapped from the tribes in the neighbourhood, whence they are sent away to Ibo in the dhows employed in provisioning Pomba Bay; that settlement having proved a failure in regard to agriculture and legal traffic.

A considerable portion of the traffic above mentioned, is for the supply of the French settlements, the negroes being purchased on the mainland and taken to Comoro, where passports are procured, certifying them to be free emigrants from that island, an officer of the Imperial Government being usually on board to see that the laws of France are not infringed.

From Johanna no export trade in slaves takes place, but domestic slavery still continues as formerly.

From Loanda, H.M.'s acting commissioner reported that several cases had come before the courts. He also sent the following consideration of the premises on which the extinction of African slavery is based;—

The premises upon which British life and treasure have been expended in unbounded efforts to release the African from his present state of

unparalleled bondage, are, I believe, founded, first, upon the undeniable ground that no man has a right to enslave another; and, secondly, using the words of her Majesty's commissioner, that "the African character is as susceptible of improvement and civilization in a degree little inferior to that of any race of men." To argue on the first of these premises, it is unnecessary to say, would be a mischievous absurdity—no man, justly can enslave another—the problem requires no solution.

The second, presents a question upon which we should be guided, not by an arrogant declaration in favour of African adaptation for civilized life on one side, nor by a haughty denial of it on the other, if we really wish to arrive at the truth.

I shall be brief in endeavouring to display the grounds upon which I consider the negro has not responded to our efforts and hopes by any proportionate endeavour to improve his condition.

The grandeur of the conception of the abolition of slavery and its tyranny throughout the British Empire was in its execution a sacrifice of immense worldly interest at the altar of Christianity.

It was supposed that the spirit of freedom once brought to the door of every negro hut would have awakened feelings of gratitude, industry, and a desire for moral and social advancement; those expectations have proved fallacious, and tropical cultivation in the colonies has been performed by foreign labour.

In Hayti, a more conspicuous proof of indifference to all but mere freedom, has distinguished the present possessors of what was French St. Domingo. In 1789 no less than 1600 vessels entered the French ports of that island. The total amount of sugar exported in that year was 141,089,831 lbs.; cotton, 7,004,274 lbs. In 1841, of sugar there were but 1363 lbs. exported; and of cotton, 1,591,451 lbs. Other productions have comparatively fallen. At this time sugar is actually imported into this portion of the island. In 1804, the negroes were in full possession of the French territory in Hayti. They had seen the practice of the French with reference to cultivation of the ground and manufacture of sugar; yet in less than sixty years the cultivation has comparatively ceased, and the island has become, in their hands, little more than a superb and self-producing waste.

I will turn to Africa. I have seen the negro through twenty-six degrees of latitude and one hundred of longitude; my opportunity of making my observations have not been confined to the sea-coast, but whenever I have been in Africa I have met with the same wonderful profusion of natural fertility of country, and the same repulsive lassitude in the man, which if roused for a time, relapses into sloth when the momentary appetite is satiated. The Kroomen are the only Africans who not only seek labour, but engage for long periods and faithfully perform their work. The location of thousands of negroes in the settlements upon the Gambia and Sierra Leone has not been attended by results at all equivalent to the care and instruction which has been extended to them. If civilization and Christianity has seriously taken root amongst them, it has not radiated beyond their limited precincts into the interior. In Monrovia, the cunning of the free negro does no more than appropriate to his own use the labour of the less discerning native. Lagos appeared advancing in the pursuit of legal trade, under the supervision of an able officer, whose recent death is deeply to be lamented. There, certainly, an impression seemed to penetrate to the interior. In the river Bonny, in which a large legal trade was maintained during, and has superseded there, the slave trade, the practice

of cannibalism exists, but is the privilege of the fetiche, or priests. In January, 1860, on my passage to this place while waiting in the river, the skeleton of the native of a few days before was shown to me, the skull and other parts being supported upon sticks before the door of the fetiche-house. In Fernando Po, the liberated Africans and others commonly send to the chief of the Cameroons a "dash," by which is understood a present, and in return a boy or girl is received, under the pretence of instructing them as house servants. So well aware was the consul, Mr. Hutchinson, of this proceeding, that at my suggestion, in February last, when there, in my presence, he proposed the precaution of registering those Cameroons then upon the island; and farther, to adopt measures to abolish the system. Liberated Africans, surely, should be the last to encourage any approach to slavery.

I am largely trespassing upon your lordship's notice, but I feel the subject of African slavery will be admitted as my excuse, and I will only glance at the association which exists between the chief and slave in the interior. Internal slavery is the groundwork of the foreign slave trade; and one of two courses must be accomplished before civilization can find a resting-place amongst negro life: either the chief must be brought to abandon his absolute power, or the negro himself must rebel against his habitual and merciless exercise of it. The chief finds that by absolute rule he obtains all he wants. He is a selfish despot, steeped in sensuality. Civilized despots cling with tenacity to absolute power; what, then, can be expected from the barbarian? The sanctity of a treaty is only understood by the chief while the presence of force overawes him, and that he fears punishment if the treaty is infringed. The River Niger treaties afford now ample proof of this. The sole argument of the chief I believe to be this:—I have power over my population: by selling them to strangers I obtain things I wish for. The country may produce what other strangers want, but there is less difficulty in selling my population than in collecting produce. The chief cannot see that he is living on the principal, instead of the interest, of his nation. These, my lord, I believe to be the only arguments made use of by the chiefs, and which have as yet resisted the promulgation of those invaluable institutions already mentioned.

I will now advert to the negro. I believe, my lord, the great obstacle to African improvement is the manner in which that vast continent is broken up into myriads of nations, each speaking a different language, and no one with friendly feeling to another. This is a natural barrier to the introduction of instruction with which it will be, as it has been, most difficult to contend. I think this to be one chief cause of the passive state of the negro from time immemorial to the present day. Should he attempt to throw off his shackles unsuccessfully, there is no friendly or free nation to which he can fly for safety. Millions of Africans, comprising the population of Western Africa, have not produced one instance of a patriotic leader. Institutions in aid of learning, arts, and science are utterly unknown. Invention—that divine and natural gift which, unbidden, suddenly flashes some wondrous application upon minds of other races—has never animated the features of the negro.

Africa has shown itself hostile to the introduction of foreign industry. Though the country is labouring under the load of its infinite fertility and spontaneous productions; though its mineral resources—gold, copper, and iron—have largely discovered themselves to the explorer, yet the very

chiefs and natives have opposed, and now are opposing, every movement tending to their extraction. The extremely rich quartz ranges in the interior, north of Elmina, Cape Coast Castle, and Accra, give fatal evidence of African jealousy, selfishness, and ignorance. The recent endeavours to expel the Portuguese from the mines of Bembè, in this province, corroborates the belief of those feelings being indigenous. They cannot see that by allowing foreign skill to labour where their ignorance denies them the power, that untold numbers would be enriched; for the first labourer is but the agent of science, art, and refinement. The consequence is, that they remain unenlightened, and we, instead of trading with millions, trade but with thousands. If, my lord, slavery is, as many say it is, the cause of the present prostration of the negro, dulls his perception, and breaks down his energy of mind, it may be asked, How is it that the chiefs, who never were slaves, are not one jot nearer civilization than are the slaves they sell or immolate, as at Ashantee and Dahomey? But, my lord, are those who know the truth of my representations to be esteemed as persons who consequently would abandon the negro "to his present state of ignorance and barbarity." My object is, on the contrary, to show your lordship that in relying so much on African chiefs and negroes we have fallen into error, and that as the slave traders have adopted new means of carrying on their traffic almost with impunity, so the nations of the world repudiating the slave trade may with confidence be called upon to enact additional means of counteracting such heartless proceedings.

With sincere diffidence, my lord, I proceed to offer some suggestions for increasing the present means of operating for the suppression of the slave trade. The two great obstacles which oppose the suppression of the slave trade appear to me—1st. To be the illegal use of the flag of the United States, combined with the absence of a law defining what fittings or other peculiarities shall declare a vessel to be engaged in the slave trade. 2ndly. The apparent unwillingness of the juries in the United States to imagine any fittings or unusual equipment to constitute a slave-ship in the absence of such a law. The first obstacle, my lord, appears irremovable so long as the United States will insist upon the flag conveying immunity from right of search by foreign ships. The right of visit amounts to very little, for if the regularity of the papers cannot be challenged, the hold may with safety be full of slaves, so far as any foreign ship of war is concerned. Possibly there may be means of counteracting the effect of the existing obstacles, though the attainment of them may be attended by the most delicate and persuasive management. It is clear, I believe, that the higher authorities in the United States are really opposed to the slave trade, however much they may palliate slave labour in the Southern States. This feeling is strongly pronounced by the zeal with which the law officers of the Government have carried through the prosecution of vessels seized under a charge of being engaged in the slave trade. The naval officers of the United States are only rivalled by those of her Majesty's ships in their zeal for suppressing both the unjustifiable use of the American flag, and the object which that use of it is intended to aid.

Commodore Edmonstone, of the *Arrogant*, at Sierra Leone, sent the following particulars regarding the principal localities where the slave trade was carried on:—

North Division.—The traffic in slaves is chiefly for domestic purposes; still I cannot but think that, in the event of a favourable opportunity

presenting itself, a considerable number could easily be obtained for foreign export from the barracoons up the river Pongas, kept by the notorious Mrs. Lightbourne and a Mr. Faber, who, I understand, is her agent. The supply is procured from the Sherbro and its vicinity, and conveyed in canoes about the month of September, after the crops are sown. Slaving also goes on from the Sherbro with Millacore and Forecarrah, and frequent captures take place off Kent by the civil commandant, who is a most active man, and has been the means of rescuing many unfortunate human beings from slavery. Slaves are frequently sent from the Pongas to the Nunez; but I should imagine principally to be shipped as emigrants. The French have constructed a fort at the latter place. I also learn that slaves are taken along the coast from Bessaio by Portuguese, and the Sierra Leone river itself is constantly the scene of its operations; but owing to the exertions of his Excellency the Governor and his agents, repeated captures have been effected. As the Sherbro without doubt supplies the greatest quantity on this part of the station, I trust, when the timber trade in the Bagroo (one of its branches) is opened, it will materially lessen that barbarous traffic by finding honest labour for those who would otherwise be sold into slavery.

I am given to understand that vessels from the western ports make a practice of calling at Cape Palmas for the purpose of learning the movements of our cruisers; and, as this place is also frequently resorted to by English merchant vessels, sometimes to the extent of 200 annually, for the purpose of procuring kroomen, &c., I think it would be of great advantage to British interests if a consul or consular agent were appointed, as it would not only check the disturbances that have frequently occurred amongst the natives and our palm-oil traders, but also enable us to gain, through such authority, more accurate information of the actual presence on the coast of vessels suspected of being intended for employment in the slave trade. I do not think there is any slaving carried on in the Liberian territory. This concludes all the information I can give on the subject of the slave trade in this division.

Bights Division.—In spite of the increased number of cruisers in this division, I regret to say the slave trade has flourished, three notorious vessels having got clear with large cargoes; but it exists, as formerly stated, principally in Dahomey's country, which is altogether given up to this illegal traffic to the injury of legitimate trade, which it has almost superseded. This increase has been caused by the large number of captures made by the King of Dahomey for the purpose of observing the barbarous custom on the anniversary of his late father's death, and which, I believe, has far exceeded in its atrocities anything of the kind. Although slaves are collected all along the coast from Elmina Chica, about ten miles to the eastward of Quittah, to Porto Novo on the eastern part of the Bights, still Great and Little Popo, Whydah, Jackin, and Delmina, are the principal shipping ports to which they are transported. Barracoons are not used so much as formerly, the slaves being scattered about among the houses so as to appear as domestic slaves. The slave traders are mostly settled at Whydah, which post ought always to be guarded by a cruiser; there is a Senor Modeiras said to be actively engaged in the slave trade at Ahgwey, and a Senor Limas, a Brazilian, living about a mile from Quittah Fort, who I hear has dealings with the *Hanover*.

As the value of an able-bodied, healthy slave, on the beach, is 90 dollars in hard cash, while on the south coast it is only 25 dollars, added to which

there is much greater risk in the Bights on account of the surf, canoes frequently capsizing with valuable cargoes on board. It is, therefore, quite evident that the slaver under American colours would only go to the most expensive market for some good reason, which is, the general absence of the United States' cruisers from that part of the coast, making, of course, their chance of a successful trip more certain. I have represented this to Flag-officer Inman, who, I hear, has sent a gunboat (*Sumpter*) to the Bights; but this is not enough to make any serious impression: there ought to be at least a squadron equal to ours, instead of the bulk of their cruisers being kept on the south coast. If this step was taken, I am sure the slave trade would be greatly lessened. Although the *Constanzia* would doubtless have got off the cameroons had she not been captured by the *Alecto*, still I do not think there is much to be apprehended from that neighbourhood while the palm-oil trade exists as at present.

The Bonny and Calabar are also free from such traffic, except, of course, in domestic slavery, which prevails more or less all over the coast. I now beg to draw your attention to the islands of Princes and St. Thomas, both of which I have reason to believe afford every assistance to slavers, which frequently put in for water and provisions, and I hear that at Princes slaves are even landed. The general disturbed state of the country for the past six months has, no doubt, been very advantageous to the increase of the slave trade in the Bights.

South Division.—The export of slaves is very general; but I am, nevertheless, thankful to say it has received a serious check during the past six months, in consequence of the exertions made towards its suppression by the United States' squadron. Our cruisers, though very active, I regret to say have not been so successful in making captures as the Americans. The Congo and its neighbourhood contribute the greatest number of slaves, and Ponta de Lenha is, without doubt, the head-quarters on the coast. It is there that the dealers principally live, and make their arrangements. I have issued instructions to the senior officer to cause this place to be visited as often as possible, and the Congo constantly to have a cruiser guarding its entrance. The places from whence slaves are shipped to the northward of the Congo are as follows:—Point Piedras, Mayumba, Banda Point, Black Point, Landana, and Cabenda Bay, to the southward of the Congo; Cabeça de Cobra, and Mangue Grande; and the coast between Maella (called by the natives Macula) and Junna Bay. At Macula vessels can lay close in under the land in safety, and receive their cargoes of slaves with the greatest facility. There is rapid and frequent communication kept up between this part of the coast and Ponta de Lenha by means of runners and by water, there being a river to the northward of Ambrizette which communicates with the Congo, and is of sufficient water to enable boats of ten tons burden to enter this river; also a large number of canoes might lay concealed a few yards inside its mouth, with their cargoes of slaves in them, completely hid from view.

Many of the native boats, with Portuguese colours, I am convinced greatly assist the slavers in shipping; and it is considered presumptive evidence, when any number of them are collected in these localities, that a shipment is contemplated. In the neighbourhood of all the principal shipping places on the south coast there are considerable barracoons continually kept supplied with slaves. The slaves on board the *Clara Windsor*, captured by the *Espoir*, as shown in inclosure 2, were shipped by King Jack at Cabenda,

in spite of the treaty that exists. I shall, therefore, take steps for his being punished for his breach of faith, and threaten him with the serious displeasure of her Majesty's Government. While at Loango, in the *Arrogant*, I took the opportunity to cause the French emigration establishment to be visited by some of my officers, who report that they were well received by the governor, who made no objection to their going over the premises, which appeared to be well conducted, and that there were upwards of 300 free emigrants awaiting shipment. At St. Paul's de Loanda there is a great deal of domestic slavery, and I should not be surprised if slaves in small quantities were occasionally taken by the coasting boats to Ambrizette. I regret to inform you that the slave trade has, to a small extent, revived to the southward of the last-mentioned port, an American vessel having got off with 300 from Benguela, as shown in the accompanying return; and I also learn that the American vessels, fitted as whalers, had been trying to negotiate for slaves at Little Fish Bay, when, failing in this object, they proceeded to the southward of the limits of the station, where, no doubt, they were successful. While at Elephant Bay I had an opportunity of observing that slavery is carried on, on that part of the coast. There is a Portuguese resident who had several slaves, principally children, in irons, no doubt ready to be transferred to some other depôt, when a number could be got together. He informed me, however, that they were for domestic purposes. I have instructed the senior officer of the southern division to order a cruizer to visit these places occasionally. In concluding this report, I am thankful to say that the number of cruizers at my disposal has been increased by two during the last six months, the disposition of the squadron being at present as follows:—North Division—*Torch* (senior officer), *Falcon*; Bights Division—*Alecto* (senior officer), *Ranger*, *Espoir*, *Bloodhound*; South Division—*Archer* (senior officer), *Prometheus*, *Wrangler*, *Sharpshooter*.

 SLAVE TRADE.

Correspondence with British Ministers and Agents in Foreign Countries, and with Foreign Ministers in England, relating to the Slave Trade, from January 1 to 31 December, 1861.

MUSCAT, ZANZIBAR.—Lieutenant Colonel Rigby on the 14th May, 1861, sent the following remarks relative to the slave trade which is carried on to so great an extent between the east coast of Africa and the coasts of Arabia and Persia:—

During the last twenty years, the stoppage of this traffic has been an object of solicitude to her Majesty's Government: but from the experience I have acquired as to the extent to which it is still carried on, I can state with confidence that very little success has hitherto attended the endeavours of the British Government to put a stop to this revolting traffic, and that the treaties entered into for its suppression between her Majesty and the late Imaum of Muscat, have not been regarded in the very slightest degree by the Zanzibar authorities. In fact, I believe that the treaties have been considered a dead letter from the day they were concluded.

During the last few years, the export of slaves from the interior of Africa

to the Island of Zanzibar has been greatly on the increase; it is now carried on in a more organized manner, and has spread much further into the interior than formerly. The number of slaves annually imported into Zanzibar is now not less than 20,000; of these, probably one-half are retained on the island, and the remainder exported to foreign countries in violation of treaties. In addition to the above, several thousands of slaves are annually taken from the ports within the Portuguese dominions, and also from the River Lindy and the port of Keelwa to ports on the coast to the north of Zanzibar, whence they are afterwards taken to the Arabian coast.

Until within the last few years, the vessels which carried the slaves from the east coast of Africa were not solely engaged in this traffic; each vessel took on board a few slaves in addition to its cargo; but at present from 100 to 200 slaves and upwards are shipped in one vessel, and it is made a distinct traffic; one Sooree vessel, captured recently by her Majesty's ship *Sidon*, had on board 273 slaves. When carried in such numbers on board Arab craft, the sufferings and mortality of the slaves are greatly augmented; it is stated that frequently one-half the number embarked die before arriving at their destination.

In the year 1840, the acting resident in the Persian Gulf reported to the secretary to Government, Bombay, that the number of slaves sold annually in the Gulf was estimated at 4000 to 5000, and that 100 vessels were employed in carrying slaves between Zanzibar and the shores of the Persian Gulf. I believe that so far from the subsequent treaties having had any effect in restricting this traffic, at the smallest computation 10,000 slaves are now taken north every year, and that upwards of 150 vessels are employed in carrying them. Of the 10,000 slaves thus exported, I believe that fully one-half are shipped in the harbour of Zanzibar, with the full knowledge of the authorities, by whom no notice whatever is taken of the breach of treaties which this traffic involves, unless urged by the British consul to do so.

The Honourable Sir J. Carnac, Governor of Bombay, recorded, in a minute dated the 5th of January, 1841, as follows:—"It would appear by our past engagements that, though the Imaum of Muscat and the Joasmees Chiefs have taken credit for having conformed to the wishes of the British Government, the slave trade prevails, in fact, in its pristine vigour within certain limits, and, as far as they are concerned, the value to us of their engagements has been rendered nugatory; and as much revenue has been derived (by the Imaum of Muscat, for example) from the traffic of slaves as he enjoyed when the slave trade did not engage our attention."

The Honourable Mr. Anderson also recorded, in a minute without date:—"I am assured that no effectual stop can be put to this traffic till the carrying away from Africa, on any pretence, slaves, either bought, kidnapped, or taken in war, is declared piracy, and the measures for capturing vessels so laden are more effectually entered upon. The great step is, to make it no longer a trade of any profit to the slave-dealer in the interior of Africa to bring to the coast slaves for sale. Until this is done, slaves will be brought down, and the terrible miseries of the trade continued." In a letter from Captain Hamerton to the secretary to the Government, Bombay, dated the 13th July, 1841, he estimates the number of slaves annually imported into the Islands of Pemba and Zanzibar from the coast of Africa at from 8000 to 10,000, a duty of 1 dollar per head being

paid to the customs-master. The import of slaves has more than doubled since that time, and the duty charged is now at 2 dollars per head. Captain Hamerton also stated as follows:—"In no part of the world is the misery and suffering these wretched slaves endure, whilst being brought here, and until they are sold, exceeded. They are in such a wretched state, from starvation and disease, that they are sometimes considered not worth landing, and are allowed to expire in the boats to save the dollar a-head duty." These remarks equally apply to the present state of this traffic. Arabs are more callous to the sufferings of slaves than to those of brute animals.

Captain Hamerton further reported, in a letter to the secretary to the Government, Bombay, dated the 2nd January, 1842, as follows:—"The Arabs from the Pirate Coast in the Persian Gulf yearly take a number of slaves by force from Zanzibar, yet the Imaum is unable to prevent them; he fears to do so. With respect to the suppression, or even the amelioration, of the slave trade which is carried on by the subjects of his highness the Imaum and other chiefs of the coast of Africa, nothing can ever be effected by negotiation. The Imaum has not the power to interfere in this matter, even were he willing to do so, but he is not. Should Government determine to put a stop to the slave trade by sea, it can easily be done; but little or no assistance can be expected from the Imaum."

The state of the slave trade on the east coast of Africa twenty years ago, as described in the above extracts, has continued up to the present time, in spite of treaties, and of all the efforts of the British Government to put a stop to it. I believe that, with the exception of the Sultan himself, every Arab in Zanzibar is, and always has been, engaged in this traffic. I know that the Sultan's next brother, by name Abdool Wahab; his nephew, Sayyid Saood; his cousin, the nominal governor of the town, by name Sayyid Suleiman; the chiefs of the Shakshee tribe, and the chief Cazeer of the town, were all engaged in supplying slaves to Spanish and French vessels. So little secrecy is observed, that vessels belonging to Somalis and Northern Arabs, lie at anchor and embark slaves just beneath the windows of the Sultan's palace. Unless a British cruiser happens to be in harbour, there is absolutely no check whatever to the illegal export of slaves. I know of one Somali vessel which, this year, embarked 150 slaves; and of another which was at anchor for three days after having embarked 160 slaves; and of a third vessel which embarked 141 slaves. I informed the Sultan of the last, and procured the re-landing of the slaves, and at my request his Highness has given to each of these slaves a certificate of emancipation.

One of the Arab vessels captured by her Majesty's ship *Sidon*, had shipped 67 slaves in the harbour of Mombass. I asked the Arab commander how he could have done so without the connivance of the authorities. He replied that he had not attempted any concealment, and that, whilst there, five other vessels had embarked slaves for the north; and that the governor of the place told them that they were doing no wrong, as the shipment of slaves was not forbidden by the Sultan. At Keelwa and Lamoo the slaves are also openly embarked; and from Keelwa alone eighteen large dhows, filled with slaves, have sailed north (to the Persian Gulf and Arabian coast) this season.

The first season after my arrival at Zanzibar, affairs were in a very unsettled state, owing to the expected invasion from Muscat, and therefore

the Sultan had no time to interfere with the northern slave trade. Last year, his Highness informed me that, in order to prevent the Gulf Arabs procuring slaves, he had prohibited the slave-market entirely during the north-east monsoon, whilst these Arabs remained here; and that he had also ordered his frigate *Piedmontese* to be stationed near the north end of the island to examine all Joasmee and Sooree dhows, and to prevent all but regular traders from entering the harbour.

Nevertheless, the slave-market was carried on daily, morning and evening, just outside the town, and the northern Arabs were permitted to purchase slaves to any extent. The *Piedmontese* was moved down to a narrow channel at the entrance of the harbour, but she had scarcely any crew, and did not stop or board a single dhow during the whole season. The only object of his Highness appeared to be, to induce me to think favourably of his efforts to suppress this traffic, and to report to Government accordingly.

The stoppage of the export of slaves from Zanzibar in Spanish and French vessels has been already effected, and all British subjects have been prohibited from purchasing or holding slaves, and from taking them as security, either for money advanced or for goods; and if this northern slave trade can be suppressed, the bringing of the slaves from a long distance to the coast for sale will be no longer profitable; for, in spite of their having carried on this traffic to so great an extent for so many years, the Arabs in Zanzibar and on the east coast of Africa are yearly becoming more and more impoverished: their own detestable vices, and the diseases they engender, are destroying them, and all their landed property is passing into the possession of British-Indian subjects, and thus the Arabs can no longer afford to purchase many slaves for their own use.

This slave trade has been this year checked for the first time on this coast by her Majesty's ships *Lyra* and *Sidon*, which have together captured twenty-five vessels engaged in it, and redeemed a large number of slaves. If the blow it has received be followed up by active measures next year, it will prevent most of the piratical tribes of the Persian Gulf from coming to this coast in future, and thus put a stop to at least half the traffic in slaves on the east coast of Africa. I trust that the day is approaching when the export of slaves from the east coast of Africa, will be entirely prohibited, for not only is the traffic a curse to Africa, and fast draining a fine fruitful country of its inhabitants, but it is equally a curse to the island of Zanzibar, checking legitimate trade, and rendering the Arab population most degraded, idle, and sensual.

Until the export is entirely put a stop to, I am of opinion that the measures adopted to check the traffic in slaves with the Persian Gulf and coasts of Arabia should be entirely directed to the coasts of Africa. If two steam gun-boats were stationed at Zanzibar during the months of March and April, and also during the months of September and October, scarcely a vessel could escape; during the other months native vessels cannot go north, owing to the winds. Probably in two years this trade would be entirely stopped, and the piratical Arabs of the gulf would find some more profitable occupation than coming to this coast for slaves. No place on the east coast is so well adapted as a station for vessels employed in checking the slave trade as Zanzibar, owing to the presence of a British Consul, and so many British subjects engaged in commerce who have correspondents at every place on the coast: information can always be obtained relative to the movements of slave-ships.

The experience of many years has proved that the efforts of the British cruisers in the Persian Gulf and on the coasts of Arabia to check this traffic, have met with very little success, and from the open manner in which it is carried on, it is evident that the risk of capture in the Gulf is scarcely regarded at all by those engaged in it, and that all the maritime chiefs connive at it, and some of them send their own agents here to purchase slaves. I believe that not even 1 per cent. of the slaves taken north every year are captured by the British cruisers.

A further reason in favour of making the chief efforts for the suppression of this traffic on the coast of Africa instead of on the coast of Arabia, or in the Persian Gulf, is the suffering and mortality among the slaves before they reach the latter coasts. A dhow which was captured by her Majesty's ship *Lyra*, only a few hours after it had quitted this harbour with 105 slaves on board, was so unbearable from the stench, that every man of the *Lyra* who went on board it to take out the slaves' provisions, was immediately taken ill, and the surgeon procured the immediate destruction of the dhow. Had this vessel not been captured, in all probability not one slave would have survived the voyage to Arabia. In addition to this, the Arabs frequently cut the throats of all the slaves, and throw the bodies overboard, if they meet a Government vessel out at sea. The captured slaves are also more easily disposed of at the Mauritius, Seychelles, and Port Natal, than if taken to Bombay.

The Zanzibar Arabs are fully prepared to expect the entire abolition of the slave trade as a circumstance they cannot avert; they have had the experience of the emancipation of all the slaves (in number 5891 up to this day) belonging to British subjects in the Zanzibar dominions, and they perceive that their interests are in no way injuriously affected by it, and that their plantations are as well tilled by free labourers as before by slaves.

Spain.—Sir J. Crampton, on the 25th August, 1861, reported an interview he had with the Spanish Minister for Foreign Affairs on the non-execution of our treaties with Spain for the extinction of the slave trade. Giving all credit to the sincerity of the desire of the Spanish Government at once to fulfil their engagements towards Great Britain, and to reap the honour of dealing a death-blow to a traffic which cannot but be odious to the immense majority of a free and generous nation such as Spain, it was nevertheless notorious that those treaties are not executed; and he held in his hand letters from her Majesty's consular agents in Cuba, which proved but too clearly that the traffic in slaves was still vigorously and successfully carried on in that island. It was difficult, he added, to persuade the British nation or Europe, that what has been accomplished by Brazil cannot be accomplished by the much superior means at the disposal of the Spanish Government.

Senor Collantes replied, that although he could not but feel inexpressibly pained at the reproaches of which the Spanish Government had been the object in regard to this matter (for what severer reproach could be addressed to an honourable nation than that of bad faith in its engagements?), he was not surprised at the language Sir J. Crampton now held to him. Nearly the same expressions had been made use of to him by a distinguished member of the British Cabinet, Lord Granville, who recently visited Madrid; and he could easily understand the position of the British Government and the feelings of the English nation in regard to this matter, although he must repeat that, when it came to be calmly looked into, it would be found

that great injustice had been done to Spain. Her motives had been misapprehended; for he could assure Sir J. Crampton that, had Spain found either that the execution of a treaty engagement was an impossibility, or one which paramount political considerations rendered it necessary for her to decline, she would have taken the straightforward means of delivering herself from it which international law sanctions, and never condescended to have recourse to the evasion of a treaty which was distasteful to her, as a means of reducing it to a dead letter. This would be a course, Sir J. Crampton must allow him to say, inconsistent with the spirit of Castilian honour, which was not extinct in this nation, and a departure from which would call down its reprobation. But the truth was, that Spain neither designed to depart from her treaty engagements, nor despaired of giving them the fullest execution, no matter what difficulties were thrown in her way, or to what obloquy she was exposed on the part of those who were unacquainted with the real circumstances of the case.

Spain had made efforts for the extinction of the slave trade, as he would prove to him by documentary evidence, and would continue to do so: but, in the first place, he would remark the difficulties inherent in the subject were not sufficiently appreciated; in the second, the real extent of the existing traffic, still, he confessed, too large, was greatly exaggerated; and, in the third, the measures taken, and taking, by the Spanish Government to check the evil, have not been allowed time to bear their appropriate fruit.

As regarded the difficulties to be overcome, he would mention the exorbitant gains of the traffic, which impelled adventurers to encounter every risk in carrying it on. As long as Cuba was unprovided with a proper system for the importation of free labourers (a matter of great difficulty), this temptation would subsist. Another obstacle was the persistence of the United States' Government in refusing the right of foreign cruisers to ascertain whether vessels exhibiting their flag were entitled to do so. A third was, he must admit with regret, the want of integrity in the discharge of their duties, of some of the officials of Spain in Cuba. This was an evil which Spain has inherited from despotism, but which the present Government were determined to root out.

Exaggerations as to the amount of the traffic were, his Excellency observed, natural enough, because in regard to illegal proceedings clandestinely carried on, there was no means by which the public could control the vague surmises which were sure to circulate. He thought, however, that he should be able to convince Sir J. Crampton that instead of 10,000, 20,000, or even 30,000, as has been alleged, not more than 5,000 or 6,000 negroes had been landed in Cuba in the course of the past year. Here his Excellency observed that, with much respect for her Majesty's consul-general at the Havana, he could not but think that he was in the habit of crediting somewhat too easily (*avec légèreté*) the reports which were brought to him on this subject.

With respect to the measures now being taken or contemplated by the Spanish Government for the purpose of extinguishing the slave trade, Senor Collantes said that one of the most essential was the organization of a system of importation of free labourers from India. This had hitherto been a matter of difficulty, because it was found that the principles and habits of these people differed so essentially from those of the inhabitants of the island of Cuba,—which, his Excellency observed, enjoyed the blessings of the Christian religion,—that it required much care to assimilate

them to the rest of the population. He trusted, however, that means would be found to render their labour available, and thus to diminish the profits of the slaver. Another, was the searching inquiry into the conduct of the Spanish officials instituted by the Captain-general of Cuba, and the severe and immediate punishment of such of them as had been concerned in, or had connived at, the slave trade. He thought he should be able to convince Sir J. Crampton at a future interview, when he would communicate to him some despatches from Marshal Serrano, that the Spanish Government have not been remiss in this respect, as Sir J. Crampton would perceive that many, and some very high, officials had been summarily dismissed.

Sir J. Crampton took the opportunity of saying that it was highly gratifying to him to be able to call his Excellency's attention to conduct on the part of a Spanish officer of high rank, eminently the reverse of that which his Excellency had so justly stigmatized. He alluded to the loyal and faithful observance of his duty by Brigadier Letona, the Lieutenant-Governor of Santiago de Cuba, which, he had received instructions to say, was highly appreciated by her Majesty's Government. His Excellency said he was acquainted with this gentleman, and seemed gratified by the favourable mention of his services. Senor Calderon Colantes concluded the interview, which was interrupted by the necessity of his Excellency's attendance on the Queen, by saying that he would renew the conversation on this subject at an early period, and communicate to him several reports from Marshal Serrano, which he had lately received, and other documents which he trusted would do much to vindicate the good faith and sincerity of the Spanish Government in their efforts finally to suppress the slave trade.

Consul Bunch, from Charleston, sent, on the 8th March, 1861, copies of an Act of the Southern Congress, entitled "A bill in relation to the Slave Trade, and to punish persons offending therein." This Act, which seemed to be of a sufficiently stringent character, differed principally from the legislation of the United States on the same subject, in abolishing the punishment of death for slave-trading, and substituting lengthened terms of imprisonment and heavy fines. It also provided that "negroes, coolies, mulattoes, or other persons of colour," who might be found on board of any vessel captured for violating this Act, should, in certain cases, be sold at public auction for the benefit of the Confederate States and of the informer. The new Act followed the course of the United States' law, in throwing the burden of proof upon the possessor in the case of a newly imported African, &c., who should be found within the territory of the Confederate States.

It has often been alleged that the capital punishment, by which alone the offence of slave-trading could be punished under the legislation of the United States, acted with the juries as a bar to the possibility of a conviction. This difficulty, if it ever existed, has thus been removed, as has the stigma of "piracy" attached to the traffic, which was supposed to offend the susceptibilities of the Southern people.

The following are the principal causes of the measure entitled "a Bill in relation to the Slave Trade, and to punish persons offending therein:—Section 1. The Congress of the Confederate States of America do enact, that no person shall directly or indirectly import, or bring in any manner whatsoever, into the Confederate States, or the territories thereof, from any

foreign kingdom, place, or country (other than the slave-holding States of the United States of America), nor from the sea, any negro, mulatto, coolie, or person of colour, with intent to hold, sell, or dispose of any such negro, mulatto, or other person of colour, as a slave, or to be held to serve or labour for any length of time whatever. And any ship, vessel, or other water craft, employed in any importation as aforesaid, shall be liable to seizure, prosecution, and forfeiture, in any district in which she may be found; one half thereof, after the payment of all expenses, to the use of the Confederate States, and the other half to the use of him or them who shall prosecute the same to effect.

Sect. 2. No citizen of the Confederate States, or any other person or persons, shall, for himself or other persons, either as master, factor, or owner, build, fit, equip, load, or otherwise prepare any ship or vessel, in any port or place within the jurisdiction of the Confederate States, nor cause any such ship or vessel to sail from any port or place whatsoever within the jurisdiction of the same, for the purpose of procuring any negro, mulatto, coolie, or person of colour, from any foreign kingdom, place or country (except as aforesaid), to be transported to any port or place whatsoever to be held, sold, or otherwise disposed of as a slave, or to be held to service or labour. And if any ship or vessel shall be so built, fitted out, equipped, laden, or otherwise prepared for the purpose aforesaid, every such ship or vessel, her tackle, apparel, furniture, and lading, shall be forfeited; one moiety, after the payment of all expenses, to the use of the Confederate States, and the other to the use of such person as shall sue for said forfeiture, and prosecute the same to effect in any court of the Confederate States.

Sect. 3. Any person violating the first section of this Act, or any provisions thereof, or aiding or abetting others in the violation thereof, on conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment of the penitentiary, or common jail, if there be no penitentiary, of the State where the conviction may be had, where, by the laws of the State, such penitentiary or jail may be used for that purpose, and if not, in such other place as may be provided by law, for a term not less than ten nor longer than twenty years; and shall, moreover, be fined at the discretion of the court, not less than one thousand, nor more than five thousand, dollars. And if any person within the Confederate States shall knowingly sell, purchase, receive, conceal, remove, or aid and assist in concealing or removing, any mulatto, coolie, or person of colour, so illegally imported as aforesaid, such person shall be guilty of a high misdemeanor, and on conviction shall be punished by a fine of not less than one thousand dollars, and not exceeding five thousand dollars. For all offences under this Act, each negro, mulatto, or person of colour illegally imported or sold, purchased, received, or removed knowingly as aforesaid, shall be held and considered as a separate offence.

Sect. 4. Every ship, vessel, boat, or other water craft, on which such negro, mulatto, coolie, or other person of colour, shall have been taken on board, received, or transported as aforesaid, her tackle, apparel, furniture, and lading shall be forfeited—one moiety to the Confederate States, and the other to the informer; and all negroes, mulattoes, coolies, or other persons of colour, so illegally imported, as aforesaid, shall be arrested and held by the officers of the Confederate States, to be disposed of as herein-after directed.

Sect. 5. Every person violating the provisions, or any of them, of section 2 of this Act, shall be guilty of a high misdemeanor, and, on conviction, shall be punished by imprisonment, as before provided, not exceeding five years, and a fine of not less than one thousand, nor more than five thousand dollars.

Sect. 6. Every negro illegally imported as aforesaid into the Confederate States shall be arrested by the marshal or his deputies, or any officer of the said States charged in any manner with the execution of this Act, and shall be safely kept, subject to the disposition hereinafter provided. And the said officer shall immediately notify the President of the Confederacy of such arrest and confinement. The President shall, as soon as possible, communicate with the governor of the State whence the vessel in which such negroes were imported cleared, if the same be one of the United States of America, and shall offer to deliver such negroes to the said State, on receiving a guarantee from such State that the said negroes shall enjoy the rights and privileges of freemen in such State, or in any other State of the United States, or that said negroes shall be transported to Africa, and there placed at liberty, free of expense to this Government. If such proposition be rejected, or if the contingency specified above shall not have occurred, the President shall receive any proposition which may be made by any responsible persons or society, who will furnish satisfactory guarantee to the President that such negroes will be transported to Africa, and there placed at liberty, free of expense to this Government; and if no such proposition shall be made within a reasonable time, the President shall cause said negroes to be sold at public outcry to the highest bidder in any one of the States where such sale shall not be inconsistent with the laws thereof, under such regulations as he may prescribe; the proceeds of which sale, after paying all the expenses incurred by the Government in the capture, detention, and sale of such negroes, and in the prosecution of the offenders, shall be paid, one-half to the informer (if he be *bonâ fide* such), and the other half into the treasury of the Confederate States.

Sect. 7. All proceedings under this Act, and all offences against its provisions, shall be had and prosecuted in the district court of the Confederate States held in the State in which, or upon the waters adjacent to which, the same may occur, or into whose port the vessel may be carried. And the writs, processes, and other mandates issued from such courts, shall run and be enforced in any State of this Confederacy, by the marshal, or his deputy, of the district which such State shall compose. And in the execution of this Act, any marshal or deputy may summon as his posse any citizen or citizens of the Confederate States.

Sect. 8. All proceedings for offences committed against the provisions of this Act, or forfeitures incurred by the same, shall be barred unless commenced within five years from the time the same were committed or incurred, or from the time of the discovery of the same.

Sect. 9. No transfers of title to an innocent purchaser, with or without notice, for or without value, shall interfere with such forfeiture, but the same shall be declared at the instance of any informer. On such trials, the informer or prosecutor shall not be required to allege or prove the name of master, owner, or consignee, nor the person from whom the negro was purchased, but shall only be required to satisfy the jury that such negro has been illegally imported. And, on all such trials, the person having such negro in possession shall be compelled to produce such negro in open

court for the personal inspection of the jury. On failure to comply with the order of the court for such production, judgment of forfeiture shall go as of course, unless satisfactory excuse for such failure be offered to the court.

Sect. 10. All other laws on the same subject shall be and the same are hereby repealed.

HOLSTEIN, LAUENBURG, AND SCHLESWIG.

Correspondence respecting the Affairs of the Duchies of Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig.

ON the 21st March, 1861, Lord John Russell received from Sir A. Malet, from Frankfort, a despatch enclosing a memorandum, presented to the Diet by the Danish envoy, which made no direct proposition to the Diet on the part of the Danish Government, but laid before the assembly only a statement of the manner in which the Copenhagen Cabinet was proceeding with the States of Holstein. On the same date a letter came from Mr. Ward from Hamburg, sending a copy of the report of the Committee of the States of Holstein, recommending the rejection of the Government propositions. The substance of the report is as follows:—

“The report comprised three heads: 1. The definitive organization of the monarchy, on which the opinion of the States was asked by the Government; 2. The project of law submitted to the States for defining provisionally the position of Holstein in regard to the common affairs of the monarchy; 3. The project of law relating to the constitution of Holstein itself.

“Under the first head, the Committee recommended an unreserved declaration by the States, that they cannot agree to any such organization of the monarchy as that proposed by the Government. The plan of a First Chamber of thirty members named by the Crown, and of a Second Chamber of sixty members elected in the ratio of population throughout the monarchy, would deprive Holstein of the independent and equal rights to which it is entitled, and would place the duchy at the mercy of a perpetual Danish majority, as was the case under the Corporate Constitution of October, 2, 1855. The plan would also be inconsistent with that which, in the opinion of the Committee, continues to be the most desirable thing, viz., the restoration of the ancient political connection between Holstein and Schleswig. Without the union of the Duchies, it is emphatically urged, their well-being is impossible, nor can Germany expect any permanent peace so long as the constitutional rights of the Duchies continue to be withheld from them.

“*Secondly.* The Committee refers to the recommendation made by the States in their last Diet for a provisional arrangement of the affairs of the duchy, in accordance with which the Federal Diet resolved, on the 8th of March, 1860, that during the provisorium all laws laid before the Imperial Council (“Reichsrath”) should also be submitted to the States of the Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, and that no law relating to the common affairs of the monarchy, especially to finances, should be put in force within those Duchies, unless it should first have received the assent of

the States. This demand was in accordance with the Royal Ordinance of the 28th of January, 1852, which guaranteed to the Duchies their independence and equal rights in regard to the other parts of the monarchy. During the last two years the Government had done nothing towards the accomplishment of those objects, nor would they be fully attained by the provisional constitution now recommended; for it did not give to the States the right of concurrent legislation for all the common affairs of the monarchy, as demanded by them and the Federal Diet, but limited the legislative powers of the States to the taxes raised within the duchy, to the domain lands, and other matters particularly specified, which are mostly of a local nature. It is not, therefore, intended to place the States of Holstein upon the same footing as the Imperial Council, or to give them the power of resolving on projects of law, whether financial or otherwise, which affect the interests of the monarchy in general, but to treat Holstein rather as a colony, or distant province, than as an integral part of the entire monarchy.

"The report remarks that the proportion to be contributed by Holstein to the common expenses of the monarchy has been reduced by the Government project from 23 per cent. to 21.64 per cent. This was too much, the right proportion being 20.75 per cent. of the whole. It is complained that the Government seeks to continue the practice of levying more from Holstein than is placed to the credit of the duchy, and the aversional sum of 640,000 dollars required to be paid over as the surplus from the domains of the ducy is considered much too high, inasmuch as this would be about 35 per cent. of the whole surplus arising from the entire domains of the monarchy. After pointing out other practical difficulties found in the project, the Committee recommended the rejection of the proposed law for determining the provisional position of Holstein in regard to the common affairs of the monarchy. The Committee regretted the possibility of an impending execution being sent by the Federal Diet, but declared that such an occurrence would not be the fault of the States, who have done the utmost in their power to conciliate, and bring about a constitutional state of things.

"*Thirdly.* The Committee observed, that although former projects of special constitutions for Holstein have been declined by the States, yet considering the defects of the existing special constitution of the 11th June, 1854, and the many infringements of the liberty of the subject sanctioned by it, in regard to the police, the press, public meetings, elections, &c., that it is desirable to accept an amended constitution for the duchy, provided always that a provisional settlement of the relations of Holstein to the rest of the monarchy shall, at the same time, take place in conformity with the former demands of the States, and with the Federal resolution of the 8th March, 1860. Upon this assumption, and not otherwise, the Committee recommend the adoption of the Government project of a new special constitution for Holstein, subject to a number of amendments particularly specified, of which the following are the most important, viz.:—The new constitution to be entitled a provisional law. The phrase "special affairs" of the duchy to be avoided, so as to prevent the supposition that the revenues of the domains do not specially belong to Holstein.

"In regard to certain matters common to Schleswig and Holstein, in which, according to the Royal Ordinance of the 28th January, 1852, the States are to have the power of resolving, a deliberative voice only is given them. They must have a resolving voice in conformity with the ordinance.

The matters to be considered as specially belonging to the Duchy of Holstein, or to that duchy in common with Schleswig, are then particularly enumerated. The Committee objected to the proposed court of competency for deciding questions of excess of authority by the police or Government authorities, and wished such questions to be decided by the ordinary courts of justice.

"The Committee considered that concessions to printers, booksellers, or newspapers, ought only to be withdrawn for abuse by the sentence of a court of justice; that public meetings of unarmed persons ought to be allowed, though, if in the open air, they should have the permission of the police; and that the religious confession should make no difference either in civil, communal, or municipal rights.

"Subject to these, and some other modifications of minor importance, they recommended the acceptance of the project of the Government specially concerning Holstein; provided always, that the Government consented to establish such a provisorium for the position of Holstein as to the entire monarchy, as was consistent with the Federal resolution of the 8th March, 1860.

"*Lastly.* In the present state of the relations between the Germanic Confederation and the Danish Government, the Committee did not advise the States to submit any propositions to the Federal Diet, but merely to authorize the president to communicate to the Federal Diet its objections, together with the propositions of the Government to which those objections relate."

On the 26th March Mr. Ward informed that the States of Holstein had, after three days' discussion, resolved to reject the first part of the propositions, relative to the definite organization of the monarchy. The votes upon the second and third parts of the Government propositions were not taken yet, but there was no doubt of the disposition of the assembly to reject these parts also.

On the 30th March Lord John Russell wrote to Lord A. Loftus as follows:—

"Her Majesty's Government considered that it is desirable that the points in dispute between the German Confederation and the King of Denmark should be made as clear as possible. It was with this view that he instructed them to give explanations on the following points:—1st. Her Majesty's Government understand that the German Confederation required that the States of Holstein should have submitted to them the budget, that is to say, the quota of contribution to be paid by Holstein for the expenses of the monarchy, as well as the sums necessary for the local expenditure of Holstein. 2ndly. Her Majesty's Government understood that the German Diet required that laws which are to bind the whole monarchy should be submitted to the States of Holstein, and obtain their assent before they can become binding, so far as Holstein is concerned.

"These two requirements appeared to her Majesty's Government to be just. They are conformable to the constitutional laws and the customs which were in force in the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland before the Irish Union. But there was a third point regarding which some obscurity prevails. M. Hall appears to infer that the German Diet demand that a law affecting Denmark only, approved by the Rigsraad, shall not have the validity of law unless it is laid before the States of Holstein for their infor-

mation, although not for their consent. I confess I read the votes of the German Diet in the same way as M. Hall. At the same time, such a demand appears to her Majesty's Government quite unreasonable, and Count Bernstorff denies that it makes part of the requirements of the German Diet.

"I shall be glad to hear from you a precise explanation on these points."

On the same date, Lord John Russell wrote to Mr. Paget, instructing him to state to the Danish Government "that nothing will bring the question which has arisen in Holstein to a peaceful issue but the most frank and clear conduct on the part of Denmark. The budget, so far as Holstein is concerned, should be submitted to the States of Holstein, and their consent should be explicitly asked. Such was the advice given by Great Britain, in conjunction with the Governments of France and Russia, and Denmark will find it her own interest neither to reject nor to evade it." Mr. Paget had an interview with M. Hall on the 1st April, and M. Hall replied that the Danish Government did not wish either to reject or evade the advice given by Great Britain, but that the position of the Holstein States was different from that of any other representative States, and that the King could not waive his right of veto, without divesting himself of the only sovereign authority he possessed. On the 4th August, Mr. Paget sent a copy of the instructions to the Royal Commissioner, which were to be read by him to the States of Holstein. But Mr. Paget observed he could not help feeling some disappointment on perusing them, for instead of being clear and precise, as he had been led by M. Hall to expect they would be, they struck him as being couched in the same confusion of language which but too generally characterizes all the communications of the Danish Government to the Holstein States and to Germany. Their substance agrees very nearly with what M. Hall told him at their recent interview, but there was a difference in the form, which he thought not likely to be advantageous. Instead of a distinct declaration, as he had been led to expect the instructions would contain, that, "*à moins d'un obstacle insurmontable*," the vote of the States would be sanctioned by the King, a hope is expressed that the vote of the States may be such as not to make it impossible for his Majesty to sanction it, in which case the budget voted by the States would replace the Royal ordonnance of September 23, 1859. There is no doubt if the States had confidence in the Government, and were anxious to meet it half-way, this document might be taken as a concession to their wishes; but as the reverse is the case, Mr. Paget doubted much if it was likely to produce any good result.

On the 13th April, the Swedish Minister, Count Platen, communicated a note of M. Manderström's on the part of the Swedish Government; and, after dwelling on the state of the disputes between Denmark and the States of Holstein, he concluded as follows:—

"Judging from the fruitless experiments to which the desire of arriving at a solution of the problem has hitherto given rise, it seems obvious to the Government of the King that it can only be obtained on the following conditions:—

"1. Complete administrative separation of the rest of the monarchy from the Duchy of Holstein, to which should be left the management of its domestic affairs and that of its own army, restricting the business

common to all parts of the monarchy to the allowances for the civil list, to the relations with foreign countries, the marine, and the posts and telegraphs. In this manner the ordinary revenue would be about sufficient for the expenses; and the normal budget could be established on a fixed and invariable basis, which would only be changed by a mutual agreement between the various parts of the monarchy.

"2. The King of Denmark, having fulfilled his promises as regards the organization of the Duchy of Schleswig, the Powers who signed the protocol of London, of 1852, should put forth a declaration acknowledging this fact, and guaranteeing the cessation, for the future, of all German interference in the affairs of that duchy.

"3. To insure the efficiency of the two first conditions, it would be necessary to add that of the neutralization of the territory of Holstein, which would be placed under the guarantee of the Powers who signed the protocol of London.

"Having offered these three principal points for the consideration of the Cabinets of London, Paris, and St. Petersburg, I wish to add a few short observations, which, without exhausting a question that, as a whole, demands the very fullest examination, will touch upon certain questions of detail, which it is essential to elucidate from the very first.

"*Ad 1.* This project being contained in that which would place Holstein in a similar position to that held by Luxemburg, it would seem that the Danish Government could raise no objection, and the Confederation could hardly refuse to one of its members a position which another already occupies without any objection on the part of the Federal authority. As regards the army of Holstein, it might, if the third point were fully carried out, be restricted to a body of gendarmes destined to act as police, and for the maintenance of public tranquillity. It should be understood that Holstein, while preserving its autonomy, should be able, if the States of that duchy desired it, to obtain the same guarantees and constitutional privileges as the rest of the monarchy.

"*Ad 2.* The alleged motive of the interference of Germany in the interior affairs of the Duchy of Schleswig has always been the difference of treatment accorded by the Danish Government to its Danish and German subjects. We do not wish to assert that, although bearing strong marks of exaggeration, these complaints appear to us entirely destitute of foundation. But if the Danish Government, whose liberal principles are generally acknowledged, has not thought fit to grant unlimited liberty to the use of the German language, to the exercise of religion, and to education in this language, can there be any other motive than the apprehension that the extension of Germanism may prove a cause of the territorial encroachments of Germany, and also a means by which they may be brought about? These encroachments once for all arrested in the proposed manner, their apprehension would lose, when there was no longer occasion for it, all excuse for practical application; and we do not doubt that the Powers who would support this arrangement would have no difficulty in obtaining from the Danish Government a promise to concede to those of its subjects who are of German race, and who speak the German language, the most complete liberty and privileges identical with those already enjoyed by the Danish inhabitants of the duchy.

"It would, perhaps, be well to allude here to a mode of solution suggested some years ago, which consists in a proposed partition of Schleswig between

Denmark and Holstein according to their respective nationalities. This project, although it appears at first sight to offer many specious advantages, is not, in our opinion, likely to decide the dispute. It is very repugnant to Denmark, which, we are convinced, would only be induced to submit to it by force; and it would not be more popular in Holstein, which would not be likely to regard this concession as a sufficient one. It appears to us to be wrong in principle, since it admits that the character of the soil would be changed in virtue of a foreign immigration, and it would include, in our opinion, a flagrant injustice by augmenting the territory of a great Power to which Schleswig has never belonged, at the expense of a Power already relatively much more feeble. Besides, to establish a frontier according to nationality, would be to take a stand upon untenable ground; and such a principle once recognized, the German element would extend itself to the Skagern by successively claiming as belonging to Germany the districts in which this element would gradually have acquired preponderance, which, if this point were once admitted, would certainly not be wanting.

"The proposed declaration on the part of the Powers who signed the protocol of London does not contain for most of them any innovation on their public right. The indissoluble union of the Duchy of Schleswig with Denmark, properly so called, has been, as you are aware, *M. le Comte*, guaranteed at different times: on the part of France, by the Act of Guarantee of June 14, 1720; on the part of Great Britain, by the guarantee dated the 26th July of the same year; and on the part of Russia, by the provisional treaty of May 22, 1767; by the final treaty of the 21st of May, 1773, and also by the Act of Guarantee and Renunciation of the 31st of May, 1773; and, lastly, on the part of Sweden, by the treaty of the 3rd of June, 1720. It will then only be necessary to introduce into the general public law of Europe a provision which has already been inserted in that of each of the declaring Powers.

"*Ad 3.* If the principle of the neutralization of Holstein, with a view to the establishment of a barrier between Germany and Denmark, were once admitted, it would be necessary then to inquire what modifications would result from this state of things in the relations of the duchy with the Confederation, and if it would not be well to replace the contingents of that duchy and of Lauenburg by a fixed sum, to be paid annually into the Federal treasury, and which should be calculated to be equivalent to the maintenance of the troops of which the 10th division of the Federal army would thus be deprived.

"We do not conceal from ourselves that these three propositions, and especially the last, will meet with strong opposition from Germany; and they cannot be carried into effect except in virtue of European necessity to be recognized by a previous understanding of the non-German Powers, who agreed to the Convention of London. The losses and sacrifices to which the Confederation would be exposed from its acceptance of them, would naturally give rise to a just and suitable compensation."

On the 12th April, Lord John Russell received a communication from Mr. Ward, of Hamburg, stating that the States of Holstein had further resolved, in accordance with the report of the Committee, as follows:—

"To reject the project of law forming the second part of the Government propositions touching the provisional position of Holstein in regard to the common affairs of the monarchy;

"To accept with certain modifications the project of law forming the

third part of the Government propositions, being a new special Constitution for Holstein, but only on condition that the provisorium for Holstein, resolved on by the Federal Diet, March 8, 1860, shall take effect, which condition amounts to a rejection of the project, as the Danish Government has no intention to introduce the provisorium ;

“To notify to the Federal Diet the objections entertained by the States to the Government propositions.

“The States also resolved yesterday upon the question of the budget—that the Assembly declined to enter, in the way proposed by the Government, upon a discussion of the propositions designated as a budget for the share of the Duchy of Holstein in the common expenditure and receipts for 1861–62, and that a paragraph conformable to this declaration should be inserted in their objections.

“This last resolution was founded upon a supplementary report of the Committee. This supplementary report is divided into three heads. Under the first is contained a formal declaration that no budget for the monarchy had been laid before the States. Under the second are explained the reasons why it would have been useless for the States to treat as a budget the proposals of the Government, as it was clear that a veto would not be allowed them. The third head vindicates the competency of the States to lay their complaints before the Federal Diet.

“It is supposed that the Assembly of the States will be dissolved to-morrow, as the further sitting cannot be attended with any utility. The Danish Government must have known from the beginning that their proposals would not be acceptable to the States, and that the latter would not consider the so-much-talked-of section 13 as a formal budget, such as would satisfy the demand of the Federal Diet. The Danish Government does not, therefore, appear to have been sincerely desirous of complying with the resolution of the Diet, and of thereby averting the impending execution.”

On the 13th April, 1861, Lord A. Loftus called the attention of Lord John Russell to the ambiguous language all along used by Denmark towards the States of Holstein, and in a memorandum on the question where the conduct of the Royal Commissioners and other circumstances are taken into account, he brought out the great perplexity in which the Holstein States were placed from the unsatisfactory language and conduct of Denmark.

On the 19th April, Lord John Russell sent a despatch to Lord A. Loftus to the following effect :—

“Her Majesty’s Government have watched, with concern and anxiety, the progress of the differences which have arisen between Germany and Denmark.

“It appears to her Majesty’s Government that these difficulties are still susceptible of arrangement, but that, if the federal execution should take place, there is great danger that questions more difficult of solution may arise. On the Danish side, a blockade of German ports may be instituted, which would at once bring Germany and Denmark into a state of war. On the German side, the presence of a German army in Holstein would revive the question of Schleswig, a question upon which the passions of Germany are greatly excited. Another danger arises from the existence of a dispute concerning the frontier, a dispute which affects the town of Rendsburg and the harbour of Kiel. Thus a war between Denmark and

Germany may spring out of these Holstein troubles, and the independence and integrity of Denmark may be in jeopardy.

"Yet, when the cause of quarrel is examined, there appears no reason for hazarding such fearful consequences. As her Majesty's Government understand the matter, the German Confederation have asked two things:— 1. That the quota of the common budget of the monarchy which affects Holstein should be submitted to the States of Holstein. 2. That the laws which are to affect Holstein shall not be valid in Holstein without the assent of the Diet of Holstein.

"The recent discussions in Holstein regard only the first of these conditions. Her Majesty's Government, in concert with France, Russia, and Sweden, advised the Danish Government to submit the quota of the budget which affects Holstein to the Diet of Holstein.

"It is much to be regretted that, instead of at once accepting this proposal, the Danish Government asked the consent of the States of Holstein to a complicated scheme of constitution for the whole monarchy. This scheme being rejected by the States of Holstein, the question of the budget again returns.

"The conclusion at which I arrive is, that in the present state of these affairs there is no sufficient ground for a federal execution by the German Confederation. Admitting the justice of their demands on the King of Denmark, as I have stated them, the whole dispute is, as I have said, susceptible of an amicable arrangement. While, on the other hand, a federal execution is full of dangers, and ought only to be adopted after every means of conciliation has been exhausted."

And on the same date Lord John Russell sent the following despatch to Earl Cowley, sending similar ones to Lord Napier and Mr. Jerningham:—

"Without adverting to the long and intricate history of the disputes which, for the last thirteen years, have excited the passions of the German and Danish people, and now threaten to place the Confederation in a state of conflict with the kingdom of Denmark, her Majesty's Government wish to place before the Government of his Majesty the Emperor of the French propositions which, in their view, are calculated to bring these disputes to an amicable termination. The first two of the following propositions contain, it is believed, the substance of the demands of the Diet of Germany upon the subject of Holstein and Lauenburg; the others relate to the Duchy of Schleswig, but the whole arrangement is founded upon the stipulations of 1852. 1. That the quota of the common budget of the monarchy which affects the Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg should be submitted to the States of Holstein and Lauenburg respectively for their assent, amendment, or rejection. 2. That the laws which are to affect the Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg shall be submitted to the Diets of Holstein and Lauenburg respectively for their assent, amendment, or rejection. 3. That the Duchy of Schleswig shall send representatives to the Parliament of Denmark, to vote in that Parliament the common expenses of the monarchy, and to vote on all laws affecting the monarchy. 4. That the separate Diet of Schleswig shall continue to be elected and to meet according to the present law. The functions of that Diet to consist in voting such sums as may be necessary for the maintenance of churches and schools and other local expenses, and in providing by equal laws for the welfare of the Danish, German, and other inhabitants of Schleswig. 5. When those terms are assented to, and solemnly proclaimed by the King of Denmark,

the four Powers, viz., France, Great Britain, Russia, and Sweden, to guarantee to the Crown of Denmark the possession of the Duchy of Schleswig. 6. That commissioners should be appointed, one on the part of Denmark, one on the part of Germany, and one on the part of the four Powers, to define the boundary of the Duchy of Schleswig. The guarantee mentioned in a former article to comprise the duchy thus defined and bounded. 7. That the treaty and engagements of 1852, so far as they are not altered by these articles, should be inviolably maintained.

"I trust that all the Powers concerned will see in these propositions an evidence of the anxious desire of her Majesty's Government to do justice to all parties, and to save both Denmark and Holstein from the chances and calamities of war."

In answer to the despatch of Count Manderström, Lord John Russell wrote to Mr. Jerningham that her Majesty's Government have considered with great attention the long and able despatch of Count Manderström to Count Platen of the date of 29th of March. That her Majesty's Government acknowledged the force of the observation of Count Manderström on the danger to be feared for Denmark from the dispute between Germany and Denmark, and upon the obligations incumbent upon Great Britain, as well from the treaties she has signed as from her regard for the maintenance of the independence and integrity of Denmark, to promote to the utmost the prevention of the impending conflict. Turning from these general considerations to the practical proposals of Count Manderström, Lord John Russell was sorry to say he could not express the same agreement. With regard to the first proposal, he would only say that, so far as it fulfilled the requirements of the German Confederation, it met the views of her Majesty's Government. With regard to the second, however, it was not in his power to say that the King of Denmark had fulfilled his promises in relation to the organization of the Duchy of Schleswig. Although this might be technically true, yet, in spirit, these promises could hardly be said to be fulfilled. With regard to the third proposal, her Majesty's Government could not expect that Germany, by consenting to the neutrality of the Duchy of Holstein, would in effect consent to deprive herself of an important part of the territory of the Confederation. As the chance of obtaining that consent appeared to her Majesty's Government infinitely small, there was no need of discussing the policy of the Swedish proposition.

On the 8th May Lord John Russell sent the following more enlarged despatch on the Holstein question to Earl Cowley, Lord Napier, and Mr. Jerningham:—

"In order to enable the Governments to whom our proposals respecting the affairs of Denmark and Germany have been communicated, to understand clearly the views and intentions of her Majesty's Government, I propose in this despatch to enter into full explanations. The first two proposals in my despatch of the 19th ultimo are intended to meet and to satisfy the requirements of the German Confederation. Her Majesty's Government have never proposed to interfere with the decision of the Diet of Frankfort in regard to a State forming part of the Confederation. When the Diet by an unanimous vote has interpreted the obligations of a State belonging to the Confederation in a certain sense, her Majesty's Government do not pretend to give to the federal act a different sense. They do

not pretend to limit or circumscribe the action of the Confederation within its own territory. But it is evident that Denmark does not fully or unreservedly subscribe to the competency of the Diet within its own territories. She makes certain reserves as to the budget, she refuses to surrender the power of demanding taxes by prerogative, she seems to dread a permanent concession. The Diet of Holstein, on their side, seems anxious to avoid a settlement on the terms proposed by the Confederation. If on their meeting on the 4th of April, they had proceeded to vote the budget, with all the retrenchments they thought it expedient to propose, it is clear they would have brought to a decisive test the sincerity of the Danish Government, who must have accepted and given the Royal sanction to the budget thus amended, or have put plainly forth the power of the prerogative, and the binding force of the Royal Patent of 1859. Thus the question would have been brought to an issue. But this issue the Diet of Holstein seemed above all things desirous to avoid. If we examine the causes of this reluctance, on the part both of Denmark and of Holstein, to come to a clear decision upon the demands of the Diet of Frankfort, those causes are not far to seek. The contentions, the State papers, the pamphlets, and the newspapers of the last few years, have thrown ample light upon the views, the desires, and the apprehensions of the two parties. It is obvious, then, that Denmark fears that the complete ascendancy of the Diet of Holstein in that Duchy would lead to encroachments upon Schleswig. Nor can it be said that these fears are without foundation. The German Powers, it is true, do not as a Confederation ask anything as to Schleswig. But it is not concealed, as is evident from the language of Baron Schleinitz and other German statesmen, that there cannot be any permanent settlement which does not embrace Schleswig. The party called the "National Verein" in Germany, always speaks of restoring the old connection between Holstein and Schleswig, and evidently intends by that connection to bind Schleswig not only to Holstein, but to Germany. For, it is obvious, if Holstein makes a demand on behalf of the German inhabitants of Schleswig, she will seek and obtain the support of Germany in pressing those demands upon Denmark. So that the authority of Denmark in Schleswig would become null, and Schleswig would, for all purposes of legislation and government, become part of Germany.

But if those fears of Denmark are not without foundation, there are fears on the part of Germany no less grounded. The promises of the King of Denmark with regard to the German inhabitants of Schleswig, it is averred, have not been carried into effect by his ministers and their agents. At no time have men of German origin, it is said, been put on an equality with their neighbours of Danish race. Again, it is apprehended that if the affairs of Holstein are settled, Schleswig will be incorporated with Denmark, in disregard of solemn promises, to the great injury of the German dwellers in Schleswig, and to the great disparagement of the honour and reputation of Germany. If these opposite fears have, as her Majesty's Government believe, both a foundation in reason and great influence over the passions both in Germany and Denmark, Schleswig as well as Holstein must be comprehended in any arrangement intended to be permanent.

Two extreme courses are suggested for this purpose. The Danish course is to incorporate Schleswig with Denmark. The German course is to unite Schleswig with Holstein, and ultimately with Germany. As a middle course, it has been proposed to divide Schleswig into a German and a

Danish portion : to unite the German portion with Holstein, and incorporate the Danish portion with Denmark. To the first of these modes of settlement Germany would object as contrary as well to the ancient rights of the duchy, as to the promises made by the King of Denmark to Austria and Prussia, when they consented to reinstate him in his authority after the last war, that he would not incorporate Schleswig. To the second, Denmark would object, as the revival of a connection which was finally put an end to by the arrangement made after the war between Germany and Denmark. There can be little doubt that Denmark would also object to the division of Schleswig into a German and a Danish Schleswig. There would in effect be a great danger of the revival of disputes on the frontier wherever any portion of the population is German. It would, therefore, be necessary, in a place where an insignificant proportion of the population is German, to join that place with Holstein; and the Danes would naturally in their turn complain of the hardships of their oppressed nationality.

It therefore seems to her Majesty's Government that a solution of the question must be sought:—1st. By separating Holstein from the Danish provinces as completely as Luxemburg is separated from Holland. 2ndly. By uniting Schleswig with Denmark for purposes common to the monarchy. 3rdly. By retaining in the Duchy of Schleswig, as Austria retains in Bohemia and Galicia, a local representative body, as a guarantee for those rights and interests of the German inhabitants of Schleswig, the neglect of which has given rise to so much complaint. Her Majesty's Government conceive that the propositions they have submitted to the governments of France, Russia, and Sweden are calculated to put an end to the embarrassment of a question which, in its present shape, threatens the peace of Europe. There are some questions, however, which naturally arise out of the propositions themselves which her Majesty's Government have put forward. One of these is, what is to be the consequence of a refusal of the states of Holstein to grant the money required, as the quota of Holstein for one of the branches of the public service? For instance, let it be supposed that 1,000,000 of rix-dollars are asked for the service of the navy, of which 200,000 are the quota of Holstein, and that the Diet vote only 100,000, what is to be the consequence?

The same question has been asked by M. Hall, and it has been answered in a despatch to Mr. Paget, of which I enclose a copy. Supposing, however, this point to be conceded by Denmark, there will arise, no doubt, many difficulties of detail. The crown domains of Holstein, for instance, are claimed by the King of Denmark as part of the crown revenue, and by the states of Holstein as part of the income of the duchy. If the main principles, however, were agreed to, this and other questions might fairly be submitted to arbitration.

There remains a question upon which the French Government have asked me to explain the views of Great Britain:—In what manner are these proposals to be communicated, and what is to be the conduct of the four Powers if they are rejected? To this question her Majesty's Government answer that these proposals should, in their opinion, be communicated in the first place, to Austria, Prussia, and the German Confederation. They should be presented without any offer of mediation, simply as a plan upon which an equitable settlement might be founded, and a manifest danger to the peace of Europe averted. They should be accompanied with the

expression of the most friendly sentiments, and of a desire not only to respect the rights of Germany, but to promote the welfare of all Germans living under Danish rule. But if the German Confederation should decline to entertain these propositions, her Majesty's Government are of opinion that nothing further should be done upon them.

I have explained, at the commencement of this dispatch, that her Majesty's Government in no way dispute the right of the German Diet to treat of matters relating to the territories of the Confederation. The duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg are such territories. In the resolutions of the Diet, as we understand them, there is no encroachment proposed on the Danish monarchy, nor any abridgment of the rights of the Rigsraad, or of the Diet of Schleswig to vote money, and make laws for Denmark and for Schleswig. In the event, therefore, of an absolute refusal of the Confederation to entertain these proposals, Germany would remain confronted with Denmark, and pursue its course upon this question, charged with all its responsibilities, and exposed to all its dangers. Great Britain, France, Russia, and Sweden, would remain free to act or not to act, to deliberate separately, or in concert, as the interests of Europe and their own position might seem to require. In any event it could not but redound to their credit that they had treated this question in a spirit of equity, and had sought a solution free from any interested views, and with the hope of averting hostilities, of providing for the welfare of the people of Holstein and Schleswig, and of thus establishing a lasting peace."

On the 27th May, Lord A. Loftus called the attention of Lord John Russell to the erroneous notion entertained by Denmark that the Diet had no power to decree a military execution, except when the public tranquillity of a Federal state is menaced, or when an open revolt has broken out, and the Government itself is unable to repress it. The Germanic Diet as a body, is legally empowered to enforce its decrees. The only precedent, however, was in the case of the Duke of Brunswick, when a military execution was ordered by the Diet in consequence of certain illegal acts perpetrated by the duke. In answer to the despatch of Lord John Russell, dated 19th of April, Prince Gortschakoff sent a lengthened memorandum approving of the first four propositions contained in that despatch, with some modifications, but objected to the fifth, on the ground that the treaty of May 8, 1852, afforded a sufficient guarantee for the possession of the Duchy of Schleswig by Denmark.

On the 20th June, 1861, Lord John Russell sent the following dispatch to Lord A. Loftus:—

"In the speech of the King of Prussia, on closing the session of the Legislative Chambers, I find the following paragraphs:—

"The Danish Government have not entirely satisfied the demands of the Diet. Also the offers which that Government afterwards made, do not yet afford a sure prospect of a solution of the affairs now pending at the Diet of the united German duchies under the sceptre of the King of Denmark. But the nature of our relations to the great powers of Europe affords a sufficient guarantee that they will not be disturbed by severe measures which may be necessary within the limits of the German territory." In these paragraphs there appears some misapprehension as to the position of one, at least, of the great powers of Europe. Her Majesty's Government have never disputed the right of the German Confederation to interpret its own

constitution upon German territory. But in speaking of Federal execution in Holstein, I have never failed to point out these obvious dangers:— 1. That Denmark may contest by arms the occupation of Holstein by German Federal troops, and thus a state of war might arise between Germany and Denmark, of which it would be almost impossible to define the limits. 2. That a disputed frontier might cause border skirmishes, and thus lead to actual war. 3. That some chance collision between excited and embittered parties might extend the scope of the contest, and change it from a question concerning German territory, which affects Germany chiefly, into a question concerning “the maintenance of the integrity of the Danish monarchy,” which, “as connected with the general interests of the balance of power in Europe,” is declared, in the Treaty of London of the 8th of May, 1852, to be “of high importance to the preservation of peace.”

Great Britain, as one of the great powers of Europe, could not fail to be “disturbed” by such results. But further: it is notorious that the public mind of Germany has been roused and inflamed by a view of the question of the German duchies going far beyond the claims of the Diet of Frankfort. That view contemplates the re-annexation of Schleswig to Holstein, and the incorporation of Schleswig, as well as Holstein, in German territory. The parties who favour this view are closely connected with the “active party of disorder in Europe,” of which the King of Prussia speaks in a subsequent part of his speech. That active party is eager to promote changes in Germany, which, whether desirable or not in themselves, can only be brought about by civil war and revolution.

It appears to her Majesty’s Government that it would be highly imprudent in the King of Prussia, whose loyal sentiments towards Germany and princes are so well known, to enter upon a conflict which is but too likely to blow into a flame the embers of discord, and add fresh fuel to the inflammable materials now spread over Europe. For these reasons, her Majesty’s Government are desirous, nay, anxious, that the Federal execution should not take place at present, and that the interval of the summer and autumn should be employed in seeking for the pacific solution of a question which to-day is German, but which to-morrow may be European; which to-day may be discussed with calm, but which to-morrow may have no issue save that of the arbitrement of arms.

On the 14th August, M. de Bille sent to Lord John Russell a memorandum of the proceedings of the Germanic Diet in the question of the Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, as follows:—

After having required on the part of the Danish Government the abrogation for Holstein and Lauenburg of the constitution of 1855, the Germanic Diet next required, by a resolution of March 8, 1860, that until a new constitution for the whole Danish monarchy could be agreed upon, “no law in common affairs (i.e., common to the whole Danish monarchy), and especially no financial law, should be promulgated for the duchies (Holstein and Lauenburg) without the consent of the Estates of those duchies having been obtained, inasmuch as the Diet otherwise would not recognize the legality of such enactments.”

This resolution was founded partly on the allegation that the Estates of Holstein had, under the Danish decrees (of 1831 and 1834), instituting the Provincial Estates, possessed a right of being heard in all common affairs

without exception; and partly on the allegation that the proclamation of the King of Denmark, of January 28, 1852, had either conceded or, at least, promised the Estates a deliberative authority in all such matters.

The Danish Government replied by denying that the consultative authority conferred on the Provincial Estates, instituted 1831 and 1834, had extended to all common affairs, and more particularly that those Estates had ever been consulted as to the appropriation of the revenues and resources of the whole State. The Danish Government further denied that the proclamation of January 28, 1852, contained any promise of a deliberative vote being given the Estates in all those matters on which they had formerly, either by right or merely by custom, been consulted, and maintained that such a deliberative vote was only promised the Estates of the Duchies for those (local) matters which specially concerned the duchies.

The Danish Government declared it to be impossible to comply with the terms of the Federal resolution, as being incompatible with the conventional arrangement (*i.e.*, the plan of an organisation of the Danish monarchy promulgated by the proclamation of January 28, 1852), which had been agreed upon by all parties. As a special reason for not complying with the Federal resolution, it was moreover stated that the regulation and conduct of the common affairs of the whole monarchy could not be left to the chance agreement of two different and separate Representative Assemblies, acting independently of one another. Besides, of these two Assemblies, the one for Holstein had been instituted solely for provincial purposes, and the Government did not, therefore, stand to it in the same relation that it did to the other Assembly, the Rigsraad (Parliament), which, on the contrary, had been expressly instituted for the purposes of a common legislation. Nor could the Danish Government allow that the definitive organisation of the Danish realm, as one collective monarchy, should be left to the decision of the Holstein Estates, which, practically, would be the case if those Estates were allowed the authority claimed for them by the resolution of the Diet.

The Danish Government, however, called the attention of the Federal Diet to the circumstance that, as the Rigsraad (Parliament) would not be convoked till after an interval of two years, no legislation in common affairs for the whole monarchy would, in the meanwhile, take place, and thus, practically, a contravention of the Federal resolution be avoided for the present, whilst time would be afforded for coming to an agreement as to the constitutional re-organisation of the monarchy.

The Diet afterwards (February 7, 1861) deemed that a contravention of the Federal resolution had, nevertheless, taken place by the publication, July 3, 1860, of the budget for 1860-61. The Danish Government denied that such was the case, inasmuch as the budget in question, though not published before July 3, 1860, had been decreed as early as September 25, 1859, or many months before the adoption of the Federal resolution of March 8, 1860, which could not be understood as having a retroactive force.

On the 6th February, Earl Russell received from Mr. J. Ward, from Hamburg, the following memorandum on the origin and progress of the Schleswig-Holstein question:—

The question between the Germanic body and Denmark, is that of the constitutional position which not only the Duchies of Holstein and Lauen-

burg, but also the Duchy of Schleswig, is entitled to hold within the Danish monarchy; and the difficulty is how to preserve the Danish State in its integrity, and at the same time to secure the duchies their just share of national independence within that State. So much has been said and written about the question for many years past, that its leading points may easily be forgotten in the mass of transactions and documents to which it has given rise, and this paper is therefore intended to serve to refresh the memory of the reader by a concise recapitulation of the course of the proceedings and of the demands made by Germany on behalf of the duchies, a compliance with which by the Danish Government might long since have obviated the necessity of an execution, or other forcible measures, being resorted to by the German States.

After the separation of Norway from Denmark, and the acquirement of Lauenburg by the latter in 1816, the Danish monarchy consisted (exclusively of its foreign possessions) of three parts, having distinct sets of laws, viz., the Kingdom of Denmark Proper, the United Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, and the Duchy of Lauenburg. In Denmark the fundamental law was the *lex regia* of November 14, 1665, under which the king was despotic; in Schleswig-Holstein it was the charter of Christian I. as their elected duke, dated Wednesday after *Invocavit* Sunday, 1460, which confirmed the union of the duchies and the rights and privileges of the inhabitants; in Lauenburg there was a constitution by States, dated September 15, 1702. The union between these different parts of the monarchy was a personal one only, except that, as between Schleswig and Holstein, it was a real union, formally acknowledged by Christian I., their elected lord. The introduction of a constitution by provincial States, with curial representation, into all parts of the monarchy in 1834, modified the powers of the king-duke, but altered nothing in the relations of those several parts of the monarchy towards each other. The first impulse to agitation in the duchies was given by the patent of the late king, Christian VIII., issued July 8, 1846, which announced the Royal intention to unite Denmark, Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg into one State, with a common constitution, and a common succession to the throne. The States of Holstein complained to the Federal Diet against the patent, and Christian VIII., being called upon to answer, declared that Schleswig and Holstein were entitled to a joint legislature and administration, that he did not intend to interfere with the independence of Holstein, and would respect the rights of the "Agnati" to the succession; whereupon the Federal Diet resolved, September 17, 1846, that the king-duke must respect the rights of the States and of the "Agnati," and reserved its competence for future decisions. The present king, Frederick VII., on his accession recognized the rights of Schleswig and Holstein, in a proclamation dated January 28, 1848; but on March 21, 1848, an insurrection of a democratic character broke out in Copenhagen, whose objects were the abolition of the constitution by States then in force in Denmark as well as in Schleswig-Holstein, to separate Schleswig from Holstein, and to incorporate the former with the kingdom of Denmark. Against these revolutionary objects began the movement in the duchies, which was purely defensive of their rights, and was approved in principle by the King of Prussia. The Schleswig-Holstein cause was, in fact, the maintenance of the 400 years' union between the two duchies under the king-duke, and their independence of the rule of the kingdom of Denmark Proper.

Out of these movements arose the war between Germany and Denmark, of which the second campaign ended with the armistice signed at Berlin, July 10, 1849. During this armistice the Duchies were governed by the mixed commission, composed of a Danish, a Prussian, and an English Commissioner. The peace was definitively concluded at Berlin, under the influence and with the aid of Russia, July 2, 1850, and its conditions were:—Art. 1. Peace, pure and simple. Art. 2. Former treaties revived. Art. 3. Mutual rights reserved. Art. 4. The King of Denmark to invoke the aid of the Confederation to restore order in Holstein. Art. 5. The boundaries between the Danish and Federal territories to be fixed by a mixed commission. Secret Article. Prussia to be a party to the negotiations for settling the succession to the throne. This treaty of peace, as signed by Austria and Prussia, was subsequently ratified by all the German States, separately, and also by the reconstituted Federal Diet, at Frankfort, October, 3, 1850. It was an unsatisfactory arrangement, because it did not, in fact, settle any one of the questions which gave rise to the war. Previous to the ratification of the peace, the hostilities between Denmark and the Duchies had been renewed, and the former had gained the advantage at the battle of Idstedt, fought July 25, 1850. After that battle, Schleswig was occupied by the Danes, but Holstein remained in possession of the Schleswig-Holstein army, and was governed by a lieutenancy ("Statthalterschaft") who acted as the representatives of the inhabitants and as the guardians of the national cause.

At the Conference of Olmütz, November 29, 1850, which averted the danger of the then threatened war between Austria and Prussia, the former is understood to have obtained a promise from Prussia to unite with her in coercive measures to restore order in Schleswig and Holstein. Accordingly Prussia concurred with Austria in pressing Holstein to an arrangement, and on the 18th February, 1852, the lieutenancy surrendered its authority into the hands of the King-Duke, the German Powers engaging not only to preserve the rights of Holstein, but also to maintain the ancient connection between that duchy and Schleswig. Meanwhile Russia had been working for the establishment of a common succession to the Danish throne, with a common or corporate constitution for the entire monarchy, and her views, at least in the matter of succession, were participated by England and France. A protocol for the regulation of the succession was signed by the Great Powers in London, August 2, 1850, and another protocol was signed by Russia and Denmark at Warsaw, June 5, 1851, which, after admitting the eventual claim of Russia to the Ducal-Gottorp part of Holstein (a claim which had ceased to have any valid existence, having been renounced in favour of the Royal line in 1773), gave Russia the eventual succession to the whole of Holstein, in case of the failure of the descendants of the designated heir, Prince Christian of Holstein-Glücksburg, and so opened a door to the possible acquirement by Russia of the entire monarchy at a future day. These protocols were confirmed by the treaty of London, of May 8, 1852, to which all the Great Powers, including Prussia (who assented reluctantly), were parties, and the new law of succession was published by the King of Denmark, July 31, 1853, abolishing the *lex regia* in force within the kingdom, and vesting the succession to the whole monarchy in Prince Christian and his heirs, to the exclusion of the house of Holstein-Augustenburg and of all the "Agnati" having presumptive rights.

The legal validity of the new law of succession is disputable for want of the consent of the "Agnati" and of the States of the Duchies, who were not consulted upon it. The consent of the Danish Diet ("Reichstag") to it was, however, asked and obtained. Passing over here all questions relative to the succession, and assuming it to be a *fait accompli*, I revert to the conditions of the peace. Negotiations were entered into with Denmark for fixing the relations of the Duchies to the joint or corporate state ("Gesammt Staat") intended to be formed. In accordance with article 4 of the treaty of Berlin, the King-Duke communicated to the German Powers his views for the pacification of Holstein, as explained in his manifesto to the duchy, dated July, 1850. The Royal programme was—1. An amnesty; 2. In Schleswig equal guarantees for both nationalities, and no incorporation with Denmark; 3. An assembly of notables, or leading men, of the Duchies, for the ascertainment of their wishes. These met, but the proceedings led to no result. The boundaries between Schleswig and Holstein, stipulated by article 6 of the treaty to be fixed by a commission, have never yet been determined, and still continue to be a matter of dispute. Denmark has, in the meantime, by an act of violence, incorporated into Schleswig a part of the Holstein territory adjoining the fortress of Rendsburg.

On June 11, 1851, the Germanic Confederation committed to Austria and Prussia the conduct of the preliminary negotiations for the settlement of the Holstein question on the basis of the *status quo ante bellum*. The King of Denmark's position in regard to the Duchies had become more difficult in consequence of the ascendancy gained by the Danish democracy under the new constitution of the kingdom, dated June 5, 1849, the democratic party being more and more enraged and bitter against the Germans in both Schleswig and Holstein. The King, nevertheless, declared to Austria and Prussia, August 26, 1851, that he would rule Holstein according to its existing laws, and would make no alterations in those laws otherwise than in a constitutional way. The declaration, however, of August 26th was not found sufficient by the German Powers, and the Danish Government being desirous of getting back its lost power in Holstein, it made a further declaration (December 6, 1851) to the effect that it would establish the desired organic union of the different parts of the monarchy in a legal and constitutional way, through the consultative provincial States of Schleswig and Holstein, the Danish Diet, and the landed proprietors of Lauenburg respectively; also that the Duchy of Schleswig should not be incorporated with the kingdom. This latter declaration was accepted as satisfactory by Austria and Prussia respectively, December 26 and 30, 1851, and in accordance therewith was issued the Royal Proclamation of January 28, 1852, communicated on the 29th to the Courts of Vienna and Berlin, the non-fulfilment of the promises contained in which proclamation has ever since been complained of by the inhabitants of the Duchies. In consequence, the Federal troops were withdrawn from Holstein, and the government of the duchy was on February 18, 1852, restored to the King of Denmark by the Commissioners of the Confederation. On July 29, 1852, the Federal Diet passed a resolution recognizing the arrangement thus effected upon the basis of the promises made by Denmark, January 28, 1852, and revoking the powers committed to Austria and Prussia on the occasion.

By means of the agreement thus arrived at between the Germanic Con-

federation and Denmark, an extension was given to the terms of the peace of July 2, 1850, which extension, though not reduced to the form of a treaty, appears equally binding by international law upon the parties concerned. The conditions of peace, as expressed in the several documents above cited, were in substance these:—1. The ancient administration and legal union between Schleswig and Holstein was abolished, except as to certain institutions, such as the canal, prison, university, &c. &c., particularly reserved; 2. Schleswig was never to be incorporated with Denmark, and the Danish and German nationalities in that duchy were to be equally protected; 3. The three Duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg were to be united with Denmark, by a common succession to the throne and a joint or corporate constitution (“Gesammt-Verfassung”), into one joint or corporate state (Gesammt-Staat), but in such a way that each of the four lands should enjoy equal rights and equal independence; that each should retain its own constitution, and none be made subordinate to the other; 4. The union of the four parts into one whole was to be effected in a constitutional way, after consultation with the provincial States of Schleswig and Holstein, the landed proprietors in Lauenburg and the Danish Diet; 5. For each of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein there was to be a separate minister for the internal affairs (including the domains) of those Duchies respectively; 6. The Council of State, army, and fleet, finances and foreign affairs, were to be common to the Duchies and to the kingdom. The ministers for common affairs should, in Denmark, be responsible to the King and Imperial Council; in the Duchies, to the King alone; 7. The States of Schleswig and Holstein were to be allowed the power of resolving, in all affairs in which they might be concerned; 8. The constitution of the kingdom of Denmark was to remain unaltered.

Such were, in fact, the conditions on which the peace was concluded and Holstein evacuated by the Federal troops. I proceed to notice the formal steps which the Germanic Diet has since been under the necessity of taking, in order to obtain the fulfilment of those conditions. The Danish Government had solemnly promised never to incorporate Schleswig with the kingdom. But the course of policy which it systematically adopted in regard to that Duchy has been such as to inspire a general belief that the eventual incorporation of the Duchy has been all along, and still is, the real object in view.

In respect of the Administration, the Courts of Justice, the Churches and Schools, it is notorious that the Danish nationality has been preferred to the German, and that acts of the most glaring partiality and injustice, too numerous to recapitulate here, have been for years past perpetrated by the Government. The constant endeavour has been to *danize* the Duchy; to extirpate, by fair means or foul, the Germanic nationality. Even the agreement to settle by a Mixed Commission the boundaries between Schleswig and Holstein has not been kept, for on March 16, 1853, the Government forcibly separated from Holstein a tract of country near Rendsburg, comprising six villages, and annexed it to the Duchy of Schleswig; and it afterwards razed a portion of the fortifications of the Castle of Rendsburg, in Holstein, and likewise annexed to Schleswig the ground so obtained. All this was done without the consent of the German Powers, and whilst the negotiations with the Federal Diet for the settlement of the boundaries were still pending. The Danish Government soon proceeded to the work of framing new constitutions. A new provincial constitution for Schleswig

dated February 15, 1854, and another for Holstein, dated June 11, 1854, were issued for those duchies, after having been submitted to the states respectively, except those paragraphs relating to the joint constitution of the monarchy, and in utter disregard of the wishes and opinions expressed by the states.

A new constitution for Lauenburg was also issued for that duchy, December 20, 1853, contrary to the wishes of the landed proprietors of that duchy. A new joint constitution for the monarchy was issued July 26, 1854, but it satisfied nobody, and was never put in force. Then came the joint constitution for the monarchy of October 2, 1855 (still in operation in Denmark and Schleswig), which was *octroyé* as a mere act of power by the Crown, without asking the consent of the states of the duchies, although the assent to it of the Diet of Denmark Proper was asked and obtained. The legality of this constitution has always been disputed by the duchies, but when the German deputies made a motion in the Imperial Council to refer the joint constitution to the States, they were overwhelmed by the Danish majority, and the motion was rejected.

A correspondence in reference to the joint constitution now issued between Austria and Prussia on the one side, and Denmark on the other, which went on from June 1, 1856, to July 6, 1857, but led to no result. On August 15, 1857, the Holstein States were assembled, and a revised special constitution for that duchy was submitted to them, and rejected almost unanimously, because it did not fix the political position of the duchy in regard to the monarchy. The assembly was therefore dissolved September 12, without a result; and the necessity of the interference of the Federal Diet became apparent. The states of Lauenburg were likewise dissatisfied with the corporate constitution of October 2, 1855, and petitioned the Federal Diet against it in October, 1857. On the 29th of October, 1857, the Federal Diet, at the instance of Austria and Prussia, formally took up the question of the position of the German Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg; and on February 11, 1858, the Diet passed a resolution to the following effect:—1. That with reference to Article LVI. of the Vienna Final Act, the special constitution for Holstein of June 11, 1854, and the ordinance for Holstein of June 23, 1854, as well as the joint constitution of October 2, 1855, in so far as it applied to Holstein and Lauenburg, were invalid. 2. That the assurances given by Denmark in 1851 and 1852, in respect of altering the constitutions of the duchies, and in respect of their equal rights and independent position in the entire monarchy, had been discarded. 3. That the constitution of October 2, 1855, was inconsistent with the principles of the Germanic Confederation. The Federal Diet required the king-duke—1. To introduce into Holstein and Lauenburg a status conformable with the principles of the Confederation, and the assurances given, securing to them independence and equal rights. 2. To notify to the Diet such measures as he might adopt with that view. A further resolution was passed by the Federal Diet, February 25, 1858, requiring the king-duke to abstain from taking any measures in Holstein and Lauenburg contrary to the resolution of February 11th, and from issuing any more unconstitutional laws. These resolutions (which do not extend to Schleswig) are decisive upon the point that the special constitution for Holstein, and the joint constitution for the monarchy, in so far as it related to Holstein and Lauenburg, have always been illegal and void. The notification made by Denmark in answer to the last-mentioned resolu-

tions did not satisfy the Federal Diet, and on May 20, 1858, that body was resolved—1. To require the king-duke to say how he proposed to order the relations of Holstein and Lauenburg according to the resolution of February 11th preceding, reserving to itself (the Diet) to decide thereon. 2. That in regard to the carrying out of the resolution of February 25th preceding, it declared that it did not recognize the Danish interpretation of that resolution, and in case of the infringement of that resolution, reserved its further decision. The answer to this, made by Denmark, July 15, 1858, was again insufficient, and the Federal Diet resolved, August 12, 1858—1. To declare to the king-duke that his answer was neither satisfactory nor a fulfilment of his Federal obligations. 2. To require the king-duke (according to the Execution Ordinance, Article 3), to declare within three weeks, whether with the constitution of October 2, 1855, the royal notifications of October 16, 1855, erecting a corporate Ministry of the Interior, and of June 23, 1856, determining what were the special affairs of Holstein, as well as sections 1 to 6 of the Holstein Constitution of June 11, 1856, also ceased to be in force for Holstein and Lauenburg; and to make to the Diet such communications as should be conformable to the resolution of May 20, 1858, and should secure the carrying out of the resolutions of February 11 and 25, 1858. 3. To empower the united committees of the Diet to receive the Danish communications. Denmark answered these resolutions on the 9th September following, to the effect that it would make confidential communications to the united committees, which it did on the 13th and 20th September, and the communications were again found unsatisfactory. Thus the Federal Resolution of February 11, 1858, not being complied with, the Diet became entitled to proceed to execution in accordance with Articles 3, 4, and 5 of the Execution Ordinance.

Thus matters stood in September, 1858. The demands of the Federal Diet did not extend to Schleswig. But the rights of that duchy were founded upon the agreements entered into in 1851 and 1852. By these agreements, Denmark had engaged that the Constitution of Schleswig should only be altered in a constitutional way, and the corporate constitution for the monarchy introduced into it in that way only; that the duchy should have its independence and equal rights with the rest of the monarchy, and should never be incorporated with the kingdom of Denmark; consequently the corporate constitution of October 2, 1855, and the special constitution of February 15, 1854, were invalid in Schleswig, and the course pursued in that duchy towards the German inhabitants by the Danish Government since 1852 was unjustifiable.

In October 1858, the present King of Prussia assumed the Government as Regent, and there being a good understanding between Prussia and Austria on the claims of the duchies, there was every appearance of those claims being pursued energetically, and that means would be adopted to overcome the continued refusal of the Danish Government to fulfil its engagements. That Government now took the decided step of severing the constitutional connection between the Duchy of Holstein and the rest of the monarchy, and on November 6, 1858, several royal patents appeared declaring the corporate constitution of October 2, 1855, to be abolished for Holstein and Lauenburg (with the reservation of such steps as might be taken for their future reunion); also declaring sections 1 to 6 of the Holstein constitution of June 11, 1854, and the notification of June 23, 1856, to be abolished, and summoning the States of Holstein to meet in

January 1859, for the purpose of considering and expressing their wishes upon new constitutional proposals to be made to them by the Government.

A provisional status, independent of Denmark, was thus introduced into Holstein and Lauenburg, which has since continued. Whatever the motive of the Government may have been, the change was hailed with applause by the Eider-Danish party, who regarded it as the precursor of the incorporation of Schleswig with the kingdom of Denmark, for which they were very willing to pay, as a price, the liberation of Holstein and Lauenburg from the thralldom of the Imperial Council and Danish Legislation.

The States of Holstein met at Itzehoe, as summoned, in January, 1859, but refused their assent to the Government proposals. They sent in to the King-duke, March 11, 1859, counter-propositions of their own, which were rejected, and so the session produced no result. The King of Denmark issued a patent, September 23, 1859 (published by the finance minister, September 25), determining the share to be paid by Holstein of the common expenses of the monarchy in addition to the amount fixed by the normal budget of February 28, 1856. On July 3, 1860, the State-budget for 1860-61, based on this patent, was officially published and put in force. In the meanwhile, viz., March 8, 1860, the Federal Diet had come to the following resolutions, under protest by Denmark, viz.:—I. (a.) That in the measures of the Danish Government, and the proposals made by it to the Holstein States, as well as in the rejection of the proposals of those States, the Diet missed the fulfilment of the obligations of Denmark under the Federal resolution of February 11, 1858. (b.) That, in consideration of the Danish declaration of November 2, 1859, the Diet would abstain from executory measures in furtherance of the resolution of August 12, 1858. (c.) But only on condition that until the establishment of a definitive constitution, according to the promises made in 1851 and 1852,—1. The patent of January 28, 1852, should be the rule for determining what were general and what were special affairs; 2. To secure the equal rights of the German Duchies, all laws which went before the Imperial Council (Reichsrath) must also go before the States of Holstein and Lauenburg, and no laws should be issued for common affairs or finances without the consent of the States. II. To consent to the Danish proposal of a conference of delegates, provided the agreements of 1851 and 1852 should be respected, and no delay should take place. III. That the united committees should report further to the Diet.

On July 26, 1860, a motion was made in the Federal Diet, by Oldenburg, to the effect that, in consequence of the breach by Denmark of the condition imposed on her by the resolution of March 8, above cited, the Diet should proceed to execution in pursuance of the resolutions of February 11 and August 12, 1858. The Diet resolved accordingly, February 7, 1861; thereby deciding that the royal patent of September 23, 1859, and the financial law, published July 3, 1860, were illegal and void for want of the consent of the Holstein States. In this state of things, the King-duke thought fit once more to summon the States of Holstein, who met at Itzehoe, March 6, 1861, and sat for some weeks. The Government proposed to the assembly certain alterations of the representative system of the monarchy, together with two projects of laws for fixing the provisional state of Holstein in regard to the common affairs of the monarchy, and for a new special constitution for that duchy.

The 13th section of the former of these projects went to declare that the

provisions of the royal patent of September 23, 1859, should be taken as the rule for the financial estimates for the period of one year, from April 1, 1861, and the Danish Government pretended that the submission of this 13th section to the States was tantamount to submitting to them the financial budget of the monarchy for the year. The States, however, resolved that no financial budget had been laid before them, and complained bitterly of the perfidy (as they termed it) of the Danish ministers in assuring foreign Powers that they had actually submitted a budget to the assembly, whilst it never had the slightest intention of asking the assent of the States, yes or no, to the financial estimates of the monarchy for the year, in the manner required by the resolutions of the Germanic Diet, which had declared the States of Holstein entitled to exercise the same control over the finances of the monarchy as the Imperial Council (Reichsrath), acting for Denmark and Schleswig, had actually done. The assembly of the Holstein States was therefore dissolved in the month of April, after having rejected all the propositions of the Government, and leaving all the questions in dispute regarding Holstein as unsettled as ever. The States, before separating, made a communication of the circumstances, and of their continued grievances, to the Federal Diet.

During the last summer a negotiation took place between the German Powers and Denmark, through the mediation of Great Britain, with the object of staying the threatened execution, upon the condition of Denmark renouncing for the current financial year the additional payments demanded from Holstein out of its special revenues beyond the quota of Holstein fixed by the normal budget of February 28, 1856. This negotiation was so far successful, that on August 12, 1861, the united committees of the Diet recommended a suspension of the executory proceedings under the resolution of February 7, 1861, and it appeared as if by a temporary sacrifice of a moderate sum of money the Danish Government was willing to do something to conciliate the irritated feelings of the Holsteiners, and at all events gain time for the amicable arrangement of the financial part of its differences with the Germanic body. But this prospect has since vanished, and the correspondence between Prussia and Denmark shows that the proposition understood to have been accepted by Denmark has not been carried out by that Power in the sense expected, and, therefore, that the executory proceedings are likely to be revived by the Federal Diet.

The more recent despatches which have passed between Berlin and Copenhagen during the last months of 1861 are before the public, and need not be here recited. They explain, unfortunately, how wide are the differences still subsisting between Denmark and the German Powers, and how little prospect there is of the King-duke either complying with the injunctions of the Diet regarding Holstein, or fulfilling the conditions of the peace in respect of Schleswig. Prussia insists upon the realization of the promises touching Schleswig which induced the German Powers to terminate the war, and she regards the King-duke's proclamation of January 28, 1852, to be legally as well as morally a part of those promises, so as to entitle the German Powers to make a *casus belli* of the non-fulfilment. The speech of the King of Prussia to his Diet on the opening of the session, January 14, 1862, has announced that Austria and Prussia are in negotiation with Denmark in order to find a provisional basis for an understanding between the Germanic Confederation and Denmark, on the question of the duchies, that Prussia held fast to the law of the Confederation as well as to inter-

national engagements, and that she was entirely agreed with Austria and the other Federal States upon the whole question.

To the above narrative I take the liberty of adding two observations only, viz. :—

1. The differences between the King-duke and the States of Holstein in regard to the constitution and finances of the duchy belong exclusively to the forum of the Germanic Federal Diet, to which all such questions are reserved by the Germanic constitution. The Federal Diet is likewise the sole interpreter of the Federal Acts and of their application (Final Act, Article XVII., and Federal law, June 28, 1832); consequently, as regards Holstein, Denmark is not entitled to dispute the decision of the Federal body, nor has any foreign Power a right to interfere with such decision.

2nd. With respect to the Duchy of Schleswig, which is not Federal territory, if the King-duke has violated the conditions of the peace of 1850, and his supplementary engagements to the German Powers of 1851 and 1852, the Germanic body may have a good *casus belli* against Denmark internationally, as one foreign State against another. The grievances of the inhabitants of Schleswig are notorious, and it would be most desirable, in the interests of humanity alone, to put an end to them. But, here, difficulties arise in the interpretation of the Danish engagements, for the solution of which there is no competent tribunal, or authority, like the Federal Diet in respect of Holstein. There are ambiguities of expression in the Danish engagements, such as in the words "Gesammt-Staat," "Selbständigkeit," "Gleichberechtigkeit," &c. (corporate State, condition of independence, condition of equal rights, &c.), which will never be cleared up to the satisfaction of both sides, without the reconciling influence of some friendly Power. The case of Schleswig, therefore, appears to be one in which the mediation of other European States is much to be wished, and a European conference is believed by many to be the only means whereby these long-standing differences have any chance of a permanent adjustment.

On the 16th April, 1862, Earl Russell sent the following despatch to Earl Cowley, and similar ones to Lord Napier and Mr. Jerningham :—

MY LORD,—The resolutions which have recently been adopted at Frankfurt on the subject of Schleswig appear to her Majesty's Government to deserve the serious consideration of the great Powers of Europe.

The German Confederation, in their sitting of the 27th of March, adopted a resolution approving of the conduct of Austria and Prussia, in respect to Schleswig.

Your Excellency will recollect that, in the summer of last year, her Majesty's Government interposed to prevent a Federal execution in Holstein, and to bring about a direct negotiation between Germany and Denmark, on the questions which had been so long in dispute.

For some time this negotiation was delayed by the change which took place in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs at Berlin.

When this change had been definitively settled, Denmark made her proposals respecting the German Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg.

Instead of replying directly to this overture, and saying whether the Danish proposals were sufficient or insufficient, Austria and Prussia, who were charged with the negotiation, declared that the whole of the questions in dispute, including those relating to the Danish Duchy of Schleswig, must be settled at one and the same time.

Her Majesty's Government would have preferred that these questions

should have been settled successively; that the demands of Germany regarding the German duchies should first have been satisfied, according to the rights and the power of the German Confederation; and that a basis of agreement having been thus attained, the questions relating to Schleswig should then have been carefully and dispassionately examined.

Her Majesty's Government feared that the rights of the German Confederation, in respect to German territory, would be confounded in some degree with the question of Danish territory, in regard to which Germany could only pretend to the fulfilment of international obligations.

This, it appears, is what has actually occurred, and the Diet of Frankfort, adopting the report of its committees, among which is the committee of execution, has proceeded to approve in the gross the proceedings of Austria and Prussia in regard to Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig.

It is true that the Diet draws a distinction, and seems to admit that on the question of Schleswig it has not any other right to interfere than that which one independent Power has to demand redress from another, on the ground of violation of engagements. But this distinction, which in the resolutions of the German Diet is made to appear vague and shadowy, must serve as the foundation of all the proceedings of the non-German Powers.

In regard to Holstein and Lauenburg, her Majesty's Government admit unreservedly the jurisdiction of the Confederation. In so doing they act in conformity to the treaty of London of 1852, which says in Article III:—

"It is expressly understood that the reciprocal rights and obligations of his Majesty the King of Denmark, and of the Germanic Confederation, concerning the Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, rights and obligations established by the Federal Act of 1815, and by the existing Federal right, shall not be affected by the present treaty."

But the including of Holstein and Lauenburg in this article is, in fact, the excluding of the Duchy of Schleswig.

The non-German Powers, therefore, who signed the treaty of London of 1852, are bound to look to the purpose of that treaty. In the preamble of the treaty it is declared, "that the maintenance of the integrity of the Danish monarchy as connected with the general balance of power in Europe, is of high importance to the preservation of peace." It would seem, then, that Great Britain, France, Russia, and Sweden are bound to see that, in the course of these disputes, the integrity of the Danish monarchy is not destroyed or impaired. This is the more necessary, as some phrases in the late Austrian and Prussian notes might possibly be interpreted to imply that the integrity of the Danish monarchy is of less consequence than the redress of grievances in Schleswig. Her Majesty's Government now propose, therefore, that the Governments of Austria and Prussia, and the President of the Diet of Frankfort, should be asked to define:—1st. What they consider to be the engagements of the King of Denmark towards Germany in respect to the Duchy of Schleswig? 2nd. In what respect the King of Denmark can be held to have violated those engagements. 3rd. Whether in obliging Denmark to respect those alleged engagements, the Powers in question, namely, Austria, Russia, and the German Confederation, have it in contemplation in any way to destroy or impair "the integrity of the Danish monarchy?"

If the Government of the Emperor of the French agree to make these inquiries, her Majesty's Ministers at Vienna, Berlin, and Frankfort, will be instructed accordingly. I am, &c.

(Signed) RUSSELL.

On the 14th September, Earl Russell received from Lord A. Loftus, from Berlin, the following despatch addressed by Count Bernstorff to the Russian representative in Denmark on the Schleswig-Holstein question in answer to a despatch of M. Hall:—

“ We have hitherto delayed giving our opinion on the communication which the Danish cabinet made to us in the despatch of the 12th of March. We were obliged earnestly to consider whether, and to what end, a continuation of a correspondence could be useful, which, from the Danish Government refusing to express themselves respecting their final intentions, seems destined to widen, rather than to narrow, the difference between the parties. Once more, on the present occasion, they have avoided answering the simple question as to whether they recognize the binding nature of the engagements taken in 1852, more especially as regards Schleswig, and whether they mean to adopt these as a basis for all further negotiations, by explanations and assertions which are partly of a general and undefined nature, and partly stand in contradiction to each other. For if M. Hall, in the beginning of his despatch, acknowledges that the negotiations have the equally privileged position of the Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg as their object, a question which, from the very nature of the circumstances, cannot be settled without reference to the positions of the other parts of the monarchy, and if he further expresses his satisfaction that Prussia holds fast to the engagements of 1852, and points out that it is self-evident that Denmark will fulfil these conditions, and yet if, notwithstanding these admissions, he considers the introduction of the Duchy of Schleswig into the present negotiations as superfluous, we confess that we are at a loss to reconcile such contradictions. Hence, to our deep regret, we are unable to discover in the communication of the 12th of March a single onward step towards an understanding, and we can refrain from entering further into the contents of this communication, as we consider it unnecessary to explain oft-repeated assertions, and to disclaim reproaches whose want of foundation we look upon as recognized. The latter applies particularly to the assertion now again repeated, but we hope for the last time, that the German Confederation wished to extend the sphere of its Federal competency over a country which does not belong to it. The Danish Government will not succeed in declining, under this pretext, all negotiations with the Diet concerning Schleswig, including those based on previous formal agreements, and bearing an international character.

We will, however, not give up all hope of a prosperous result of these negotiations.

As the Danish Government has not, as yet, entered upon the material contents of the convention of 1852, and has not announced to us their views as to the proper measures to be taken for its execution, we will endeavour to approach this object by explaining more fully the contents of that convention, and by showing the claims which, according to our ideas, arise therefrom, and which are of a clear and simple nature.

We will only advert here in the simplest terms to what was agreed upon, and to the main principles and conditions which are to be deduced from this agreement and which are involved in its fulfilment. We cannot look upon it as our duty to make proposals respecting the fulfilment of the agreement itself. We hold fast, however, to our indubitable right of testing whether the fulfilment given or desired by the Danish Government corresponds with the principles agreed upon. The convention of 1852

promises an independent and equally privileged position for the various parts of the monarchy in regard to their separate affairs; and at the same time ordains for their common affairs an organic and equal union of them into a whole, in which no portion shall be incorporated into another, or made subservient to another. Hence it follows incontrovertibly that the Duchy of Schleswig cannot be brought into a closer union with the Kingdom of Denmark than with the Duchy of Holstein, and that no arrangement can be made by which the Government or the representation of the kingdom would obtain influence in the internal and special affairs of Schleswig. It can, moreover, be shown that the right and proper influence of Holstein in common affairs cannot be withdrawn from her, and her participation in them cannot be limited to certain portions of the legislature, or to the voting of certain quotas, but that her title, as regards the settlement of the common budget, as well as with regard to all common laws and measures, must be the same as that of the other portions of the country.

This also applies to the Duchy of Schleswig, and we are, therefore, entitled by the text of the convention (apart from the indirect influence which the position of Schleswig must exercise upon the position of Holstein) to give validity to this demand as regards the Duchy of Schleswig. It further necessarily results from the above principles that in the institutions from which an organic community is to result and be maintained, every principle must be excluded which, like that of the mere number of the population, destroys the independence of the provinces as such, and transfers the decision to a numerical majority, which would be just and proper in an united country. Of whatever kind the constitution may be, it must always maintain a character by which the separate provinces can be protected against harm from a majority of persons who are strangers to them. The same principles are to be applied to the central executive. The Government must stand in the same relation towards the kingdom as towards the duchies, and be no less responsible to the latter than to the former. The Austrian despatch of December 26, 1851, has already pointed out the evils which the duchies would suffer from the Danish Ministry being invested with a two-fold position; and we must call attention to the fact that it runs counter both to the nature of the circumstances and to the spirit of the convention in question, that one of the portions of the monarchy should be either not represented at all in this central executive, or should be so by an organ not belonging to it either by virtue of its position or personal interests, as has now for a long time been the case in regard to Holstein and Lauenburg.

In this respect also, Schleswig has the same rights as Holstein. Schleswig can just as little as Holstein assume the position of a Danish province—an expression the continually attempted repetition of which, in respect to the Dukedom of Schleswig, must be repudiated as totally inadmissible. We must further remind the Danish Government that the organic institutions to be called into life must be brought about by legal and constitutional means; that is, by the provincial assemblies of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, by decrees of the Danish Reichsrath, and by the co-operation of the estates of Lauenburg (“*Ritter und Landschaft*.”) Lastly, we must remind the Danish Government that the non-political relations which the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein have in common were expressly safeguarded in the negotiations (of 1852); that

special attention was paid to the position of the University of Kiel; and that equal rights and an effective protection were guaranteed to the German as well as to the Danish nationality.

The *de facto* close connection of Schleswig with the kingdom; the preponderating influence which is thereby accorded to the latter; the subordinate position in which Holstein is kept in respect to the common affairs of the monarchy, particularly in what concerns the budget; the systematic destruction of all natural and neighbourly relations between Schleswig and Holstein; the non-observance of engagements respecting the University of Kiel; the surfeiting of the Duchy of Schleswig with Danish employes in the administration, and with Danish clergy in the churches and schools, as well as the whole spirit of the administration in this duchy; lastly, the oppression of the German nationality and the violation of the real and actual relations by the maintenance of the edict respecting language,—are facts which are self-evident, and for which everybody can have proofs.

And what even formal legal status can be attributed to the common constitution of 1855, when it is remembered that the decision of the Danish Reichstag (which had rejected a former proposal) has been alone taken upon it, whilst the States of the three duchies, contrary to the agreement of 1852, have not been consulted, and when it is further called to mind that the paragraphs in the provincial constitutions having reference to the common affairs were expressly withdrawn from the discussion and decision of the States of the Duchies?

We have, therefore, a perfect right—a right which is conceded by mutual agreement—to demand of the Danish Government that it will take earnest measures to bring about a state of things in accordance with the above-mentioned outline, and that until this has been effected it will at least avoid or annul that which stands in direct opposition to it.

In drawing up the following deductions from the agreement of 1852, we are indeed limiting ourselves to the lowest measure of that which we have a right to claim:—1. That the common constitution of 2nd October, 1855, which was called into existence by illegal means, that is, without the consultation of the States of Holstein and Schleswig, and without the co-operation of the Lauenburg Estates, shall be entirely, and therefore also as regards Schleswig, abolished. 2. That for the purpose of the re-establishment of an effective common constitution, a new project of constitution shall be submitted to the several representative assemblies of all parts of the monarchy for their assent, in which the unconditional principle of representation according to the numbers of the population, must be abolished. 3. That so long as one representative organ for the whole monarchy shall not have been formed in this manner, an equal degree of influence with regard to the common affairs shall be conceded to the several local assemblies, and that the central government shall be equally responsible to the several assemblies for the management of these affairs. 4. That for the preservation of the equality of nationalities in the Duchy of Schleswig, the *status quo ante* of 1848 with respect to language shall for the present be introduced until an agreement be arrived at by a law with the co-operation and sanction of the assembly of Schleswig.

In reply to this explicit and precise exposé, we shall expect to obtain at last a precise and explicit declaration.

M. Hall will not be able to reproach us with giving a value “to stray remarks in the correspondence,” which only belongs to the agreement itself.

What we have now laid down is that which constitutes the agreement itself, and the spirit and object of the agreement not less than the text render this interpretation of it a necessary one.

This object was no other than to find an equivalent, acceptable to both sides, for the previous ancient state of things, the continuance of which did not seem compatible with the circumstances of modern times, and with the change from an absolute to a representative monarchy.

This ancient state of things was designated in the declaration of his Majesty King Christian VIII. of 7th September, 1846, as follows:—That both duchies (Holstein and Schleswig) shall, besides the social nexus of the Schleswig-Holstein knights, have in common all relations connected with public rights, and this by virtue of a common or similar legislation and administration, in so far as no constitutional peculiarities of either duchy stand in the way, with the exception always of Holstein's position as a member of the German Confederation, and of separate assemblies in the two duchies."

Does the Danish Government believe that Germany will at one and the same time give up this long-established status, and the guarantees given as a compensation for it? Or can, by the dissolution of the closer alliance which until then had bound up the Duchies of Holstein and Schleswig with each other, any one of the rights which were independent of this connection be considered as abolished either in regard to the duchies themselves or to third parties?

Their position in the monarchy was indeed to be altered, but that it should not be altered for the worse, more especially in regard to the kingdom proper, lay in the very nature of the case; and permanently to safeguard this position was the end and object of the agreement of 1852.

Must we, lastly, once more particularly revert to the fact that the two great German Powers found for themselves in these guarantees a justification for their participation in international negotiations concerning the common succession to the monarchy, on which the Danish minister laid so much stress?

We have now only two more short observations to make.

With regard to the provisional state of things in the Federal Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, it is a matter of course that the decisions of the Diet of the 8th of March, 1860, and of the 7th February, 1861, remain obligatory, and that concerning these decisions no further transaction can take place, as indeed no further negotiations concerning their meaning and execution are necessary. Their sense is clear, and their execution remains in the hands of the Danish Government. An intervention of the Diet caused by a violation of them would, as universally admitted, act entirely on the ground of the internal competency of the Federal Constitution.

The other remark touches the reference made by M. Hall, at the end of his despatch of the 12th March, to our protest of the 14th of February. To this we have only to remark, that we maintain this protest—to which the Diet has given its adhesion—in all its force; and it must be understood that we shall continue to do so during the further prosecution of these negotiations.

Your Excellency will make known and give a copy of this despatch to the Danish Minister for Foreign Affairs.

On the 24th September, 1862, Earl Russell sent to Mr. Fane the following despatch:—

“It appears from the accounts received from various quarters that the correspondence between Austria, Prussia, and Denmark, which it was asserted would lead to a settlement of the dispute so long subsisting between Germany and Denmark in regard to the obligations of Denmark in the affairs of Holstein, Lauenburg, Schleswig, and the common constitution of the Danish monarchy, has grown more and more bitter. The longer the lapse of time, and the further the negotiation is carried, the wider is the space which separates the two parties, and the stronger the language which they use towards each other.

Upon considering, with pain and regret, this unsatisfactory aspect of the affair, and contemplating the unfavourable results which may be expected from further direct communications between Powers so adverse in their opinions, her Majesty has directed that you should be furnished with instructions which may, it is hoped, tend to the long-desired settlement. In framing these instructions it is advisable to throw out of the calculation, in the first place, those matters upon which controversy may be said to be exhausted. The first of these matters relates to the question whether any taxes can be imposed, or any laws enacted, in Holstein or Lauenburg without the express consent of the representatives of those duchies. This question has been resolved in the negative by the German Confederation, of which the Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg are members. Another question which need not be further discussed is the constitution of 1855. It is clear that whether a representation according to numbers of the kingdom, as well as the duchies, be a good or a bad constitution, yet, not having been accepted by the duchies, the constitution of 1855 has no force in Holstein, Lauenburg, or Schleswig. Neither is it necessary to discuss the rights of Denmark in reference to her Rigsraad. It is quite clear that Denmark can legislate for herself, and impose taxes to be levied upon her own people, without the consent of Holstein, Lauenburg, or Schleswig. Two questions of great importance remain. The first regards the Duchy of Schleswig; the second, the common constitution of the monarchy.

Schleswig was formerly in a position altogether anomalous. Unconnected with the German Confederation, it was yet connected with Holstein, which formed part of that confederation. Later arrangements have dissolved this inconvenient tie, and Schleswig is at present only connected with Holstein by non-political relations affecting the two communities.

There are, however, relations between Germany and Denmark in respect to Schleswig which have given rise to the present controversy. The obligations of honour contracted by Denmark towards Schleswig, and imparted to the German Confederation as such by the King of Denmark in 1852, chiefly regard two points. The first of these is the royal promise that Schleswig shall not be incorporated with Denmark. The second is, in substance, an engagement that the Germans in Schleswig shall be treated on an equal footing with persons of Danish or any other nationality.

The grievances of which Germany complains as violations of these promises are thus summed up in the recent Prussian note of the 22nd of August:—“The systematic destruction of national and neighbourly con-

nection between Schleswig and Holstein; the disregard of the determination concerning the University of Kiel; the filling of the Duchy of Schleswig with Danish officials in the administration, with Danish clergy in churches and schools, as well as the whole spirit of the administration in this duchy; finally, the violation of all actual and practical relations by the maintenance of the language edict, are matters of fact which are notoriously public, and of which the evidence is in the hands of every one." For all practical purposes, it would be vain to attempt a constant supervision by Germany of the nomination to civil offices of Danish officials in Schleswig, or the administration in churches and schools by Danish ministers of religion. Such superintendence would lead to a constant renewal of quarrels, and a perpetuity of ill-will.

The best mode, therefore, of remedying these evils for the present, and of preventing complaints for the future, is to grant a complete autonomy to Schleswig, allow the Diet of Schleswig fairly to treat, and independently to decide upon questions affecting their university, their churches and schools, the language to be used where the Danish population prevails, where the Germans preponderate, and where the races are mixed.

I come lastly to the question of the constitution, the most entangled and the most embarrassing question of all those in discussion. Treaties, protocols, and despatches afford us little light upon this subject, and the glimmering rays which they do afford tend rather to lead us astray than to guide us right. For what could be more destructive of all union, all efficiency, all strength, and, indeed, of all independence, than to lay down as an absolute rule that no law should be passed and no budget sanctioned unless the four States of the monarchy all concurred? What would Austria say if she were asked to accept a constitution which should paralyse the action of the Reichsrath at Vienna till separate Diets in Hungary, in Galicia, and in Venetia, should have adopted the same law or sanctioned the same budget? How would Prussia herself bear an absolute veto on the proceedings of her Parliament given to the Diet of Posen?

If such a constitution must lead to an early and decisive rupture, let us consider whether each portion might not have its due independent movement without clogging the wheels of the whole machine. For instance, if the sums required for the navy were represented by 90, of which Denmark were to furnish 60, and the other States 30, Denmark might vote, and apply her contingent of 60, independently of the vote of the other three portions. There is only one objection to be made to this suggestion which deserves consideration. If the 1,600,000 people of Denmark were taxed to pay the army and navy, and the 50,000 of Lauenburg were to refuse any grant for these purposes, a hardship would be suffered by the inhabitants of the kingdom when compared with the situation of the King-duke's subjects in Lauenburg. The remedy for this inequality is to be found in a proposal for a normal budget, to be laid before the Rigsgaad, and before the Diets of Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig, for their consent. It is obvious that the Government of an independent kingdom like Denmark must, for the maintenance of that independence, require a certain amount of expenditure for the civil list of the Sovereign, for the diplomatic service, for the army and navy of the State. Let this be reckoned as economically as possible; for the least amount of royal

digity; for the most frugal establishments of profound peace. Obtain that sum from the four representative bodies. Confide its distribution to a Council of State, formed, two-thirds of Danes, and one-third of Germans. Let the votes of this council be taken in public, and accounts of the expenditure published yearly. The normal budget to be voted in gross for ten years. The distribution or expenditure to be voted yearly. Extraordinary expenses beyond the normal budget to be voted freely by the kingdom and the three duchies separately.

The suggestions I have made may be summed up in a few words:—
1. Holstein and Lauenburg to have all that the German Confederation ask for them. 2. Schleswig to have the power of self-government, and not to be represented in the Rigsraad. 3. A normal budget to be agreed upon by Denmark, Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig. 4. Any extraordinary expenses to be submitted to the Rigsraad, and to the separate Diets of Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig. You will give a copy of this despatch to Count Rechberg, and invite his serious attention to its contents.

And on the 30th October Count Bernstorff communicated to Earl Russell the following despatch from M. Bismark, dated Berlin, October 27, 1862:—

Your Excellency is already cognizant of the despatch which the British Secretary of State in the Foreign Department wrote on the 24th ultimo to Mr. Lowther, communicating his views as to the manner in which the long-pending dispute between Germany and Denmark might be terminated. A like communication was sent to Vienna, and Lord Russell has recommended his views, and the propositions grounded upon them, to the consideration of the two great German Powers. It is not necessary to assure you that this consideration will be fully given to them by us. It is true that this difference essentially relates to nothing more than the performance of requisitions settled by treaty between Germany and Denmark. But we understand the desire of friendly powers to see the settlement of a dispute which in its further developments might certainly lead to very serious results, as it is impossible, as your Excellency is aware, that Germany should yield up claims which are most intimately bound up with the whole of her political position. If, in the interests of peace, we hold it to be our duty seriously to examine every view offered to us upon the solution of this weighty question, a proposition from England especially has the fullest claim to our searching consideration.

I am rejoiced to be able at the outset to express the conviction that Earl Russell's despatch, particularly the four points in which the propositions are summed up at the close, contains the basis for coming to an understanding, provided that they be unreservedly accepted by the Danish Government, and then carried out also in a suitable manner.

We do not, it is true, conceal from ourselves that the propositions of Lord Russell do not strictly turn upon the basis of the agreements of 1851 and 1852.

No one could make it a reproach to us if we should simply insist that Denmark also should absolutely not deviate from this basis, and that in case Denmark should declare herself unable to fulfil the obligations she has contracted, all existing obligations would then cease for us also, and from that moment the ancient right, for which an equivalent was offered, but not guaranteed, to us, might be the only basis of our demands and acts.

But, however, we can gather in the propositions of Lord Russell also a means of securing the essential objects and interests which prevailed in the negotiations of 1851 and 1852; and it is in consideration of this, and in our sincere wish for the maintenance of peace, that we find the justification of our efforts to reach our object in a somewhat deviating way.

We must, first of all, thank the British Secretary of State for having simplified the question by discarding all those points upon which there remains no dispute. In this respect we fully concur with him, and we have always most deeply regretted that we were compelled to go back to circumstances which should have been clear of themselves; the acknowledgment contained in the despatch of the 24th September will dispense with our doing it for the future.

The first of these points referred to, which negatives the levy of taxes, or the enacting of laws in Holstein and Lauenburg, without the assent of the States, is in accordance with the conditions set up by the well-known Federal resolutions for the immediate provisional situation, the discontinuance of which we have shown to be necessary, if Federal measures are to be averted. As the British Secretary of State declares that this is decided by the Federal resolutions, he shows that he perfectly understands this part of the question to be a matter purely appertaining to the Confederation. The second point, relative to the nullity of the collective constitution of 1855, is also clearly conceived. This nullity is a condition of the exclusion of Schleswig from the Reichsrath, and it is expressly stated also in the second of the recapitulating paragraphs at the close of the despatch. It would be difficult for the cabinet of Copenhagen to oppose these simple statements of facts, by any deductions, however ingenious. And, lastly, the third of those points, which expresses the independence and freedom of the kingdom of Denmark to impose taxes and to legislate in itself, is a matter of course, and is so understood by us. We have always been very far from claiming a right for the duchies to interpose in the affairs of the kingdom. After Earl Russell has thus put away those elements which have but too much contributed to obscure the whole affair, he proceeds to lay down his direct ("positive") propositions in regard to the two great questions—upon the position of Schleswig, and upon the ordering of such relations in the different parts of the monarchy as imply, in some form, a common action.

In speaking of the first of these two points, we will not argue upon the designation of the obligations of Denmark as being that of a debt of honour; we certainly look upon the performance of treaty obligations as being also a debt of honour.

Here again also Lord Russell brings forward clearly the two essential parts: the security of Schleswig against incorporation, and the protection of German nationality in the Duchies; and he believes that a suitable remedy for both is to be found in a complete autonomy of the duchy, by which it would stand in no nearer a political relation to the kingdom than to the other territories in the monarchy, and would have to decide independently upon all the points regarding which Danish encroachments have to this time given occasion for such just and hitherto such fruitless complaints; complaints resting upon such notorious facts that a superintendence, such as we have neither exercised nor claimed, was not required to prove their reality.

We declare ourselves to be fully in accordance with the propositions of

Lord Russell; but they will certainly not attain their object unless they be carried out with perfect sincerity on the part of his Majesty the King of Denmark; unless the system of Danish arbitrariness ("Vergewaltigung") which has hitherto prevailed in Schleswig be really terminated; and unless a guarantee be given for a perfectly free election and voting of the assembly of States, which is to decide upon all the given points. This is a matter which is quite self-evident, and it will indeed appear so to the British Secretary of State; but frequent and sad experience unfortunately compels us again to mention it, and urgently to recommend it to the attention of the Earl Russell. The despatch finally treats of what it designates, justly, the most difficult and complicated point of the whole affair, namely, the ordering of common financial matters.

In this point, also, I can but declare myself to be in accordance with the propositions as they are contained in the third and fourth summary paragraphs at the close of the despatch. The union with the States of the several territories of the monarchy for a normal budget, and free voting, by the same States, for extraordinary expenses going beyond it, corresponds, in our view, with the rights and interests of those territories, as also with the wants of the whole body; and it will, I should suppose, find no objection on the part of the duchies themselves. If the Danish Government accepts without reserve these points, together with the two first mentioned, it will be possible to determine, also, by a further agreement, a suitable form for ordering the expenses appertaining to the common body. The plan intimated in Earl Russell's despatch of paying and distributing the normal budget, with the co-operation of a Council of State, may offer, I am of opinion, the connecting point ("Anknüpfung") for such agreement, if in this the principle be strictly adhered to, that each of the territories be secured from an unjust preponderance of the rest.

In expressing, therefore, our assent to the four paragraphs in which the British Secretary of State sums up his propositions, I need hardly add the observation that we can speak at present in our individual name only. We have now no express mandate from the Confederation, and can neither prejudge its views nor dispose of its rights. But it is likewise a matter of course that if Lord Russell's propositions be accepted by the Danish Government, we shall also represent our view to the Confederation, and exert ourselves to obtain thereto the consent of our Federal colleagues. Should this endeavour to come to an understanding be frustrated by the failure of a corresponding move on the part of the Danish Government, the agreements of 1851 and 1852, and the rights and claims of Germany, naturally remain in full force.

I request your Excellency to express yourself in this sense to the British Secretary of State, and, at the same time, I authorize you to give him a copy of this despatch.

On the 1st November, Count Wimpffen communicated to Earl Russell the following despatch from Count Rechberg, dated Vienna, 29th October, 1862:—

Mr. Julian Fane has communicated to me the despatch, of which a copy is enclosed, addressed to him by the Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, by command of her Majesty the Queen, with a view to facilitate the arrangement of the difficulty which subsists between Germany and Denmark.

As you will see by this despatch, Lord Russell, as an introduction to his proposals, designates, in the first place, the points on which, in his opinion, the discussions which have hitherto taken place have produced an indisputable result. He considers it as quite established—1st. That in Holstein and Lauenburg no law can be decreed and no tax levied without the consent of the States of those duchies. 2ndly. That the general constitution of the kingdom of the 2nd October, 1855, which has been already formally suspended as regards Holstein and Lauenburg, must of necessity be and remain without effect as regards Schleswig. 3rdly. That the kingdom of Denmark Proper has the right to frame its laws and impose its taxes, independently of the assent of the duchies.

Taking these articles as a point of departure, Lord Russell proceeds to trace the fundamental outlines of a plan by which the question of the position of Schleswig, as well as the complicated problem of the establishment of a common constitution for all the Danish monarchy, may be solved to the satisfaction of both parties.

These fundamental outlines are comprised by the Secretary of State in the four following points:—1. Holstein and Lauenburg to have all that the German Confederation ask for them. 2. Schleswig to have the power of self-government, and not to be represented in the Rigsraad. 3. A normal budget to be agreed upon by Denmark, Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig. 4. Any extraordinary expenses to be submitted to the Rigsraad, and to the separate Diets of Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig.

After having attentively examined this important communication, and having come to an agreement with the Court of Prussia, to whom the Cabinet of London has addressed the same proposals, I reply by the following observations to the wish expressed by Lord Russell, to be made acquainted with our views of his plan of arrangement.

After a long and fruitless discussion between the German Powers and the Cabinet of Copenhagen, the Imperial Government has acquired the conviction that to find the key of a final solution of the complications hitherto existing, it is, above all, necessary to persuade Denmark of the impossibility of preserving as a bond of union for the other portions only of the monarchy, the general constitution of 1855, which was established contrary to the conventions of 1851 and 1852, and which has already been abolished for Holstein and Lauenburg. This was the principal point of our memorandum of last August.

We feel, therefore, especial satisfaction at seeing Great Britain share this opinion; and in taking note of it I do not hesitate to express the conviction that the British Government will have the merit of having greatly contributed to the settlement of a difference threatening to the peace of Europe, if it brings the Danish Government, which has so many motives for attaching value to the counsels of England, finally to renounce for Schleswig also the constitution of 1855.

It is no less satisfactory to us that Lord Russell completely recognizes the right of the Germanic Confederation to settle in the last resort, by its decisions, the questions concerning Holstein and Lauenburg which are pending at Frankfort.

We, on our side, are far from contesting that the kingdom of Denmark Proper should not use its special rights in the matter of legislation and of taxes without being bound by the consent of the representative bodies of the duchies.

We congratulate ourselves, therefore, at finding that we are entirely in accord with the British Government as to the points which it considers to be removed from all further discussion. We hasten to add that for our part we are equally disposed to see in the positive proposals which form the second part of Lord Russell's despatch, a proper and equitable basis for the final solution of the Dano-Germanic question.

To cover the responsibility of the Imperial Government, I ought, however, to observe that in this affair the intercession of a third Power should be limited by the right of the Germanic Confederation, as recognized by Lord Russell himself, to act, in matters concerning the internal affairs of Germany, in conformity with the laws of the Confederation, independently of all foreign interference.

I should further recall to mind that the Cabinets of Vienna and Berlin have not precisely a commission to negotiate in the name of the Germanic Confederation, and are not, therefore, in a position to accept a change of any kind in the legal state of the question without the consent of the Confederation.

The four points laid down by Lord Russell as the basis of an arrangement, do not entirely agree with the stipulations of 1851 and 1852, from which the Germanic Confederation derives its demands, and the Governments of Austria and Prussia have not the right of accepting, in virtue of their own decision, a proposition which is not perfectly identical with these stipulations in place of their exact execution.

The two Governments must confine themselves to an expression of their individual opinion on the question whether this basis, thus modified, should be considered as admissible by the Confederation, and whether they can plead in its favour with their German confederates. This point established, I do not hesitate to declare that, according to the view of the Imperial Cabinet, the rights and interests which it is called upon to defend in the affair in question might be secured by the frank and complete execution of the four points laid down by the Cabinet of London, quite as effectually as by the execution of the stipulations of 1851 and 1852. The Imperial Government, in its love of peace, can assuredly not fail to give its best wishes to a proposal of settlement of which it entertains such an opinion, and which has on its side the authority of England. In the interest of the success which it desires, the Imperial Government thinks, moreover, that it cannot sufficiently recommend that the same spirit of equity towards the various portions of the Danish monarchy which is incontestably shown in the four points above mentioned, should also guide the treatment of the questions which will require to be settled, either in addition to these four summary points, or to secure their execution. Lord Russell has himself pointed out one of the most important of these questions when recommending, in the text of his despatch, the establishment of a common Council of State.

I conclude by repeating that the preceding explanations can take nothing from the force and validity of the engagements subsisting between the Germanic Confederation and Denmark; and that, of course, we reserve not only to the Confederation, but to ourselves also, the right of reverting entirely to these engagements if the conciliatory influence of England should not attain its object, from want of good-will on the part of the Court of Copenhagen.

You will be good enough, M. le Comte, to speak to the Principal Secre-

tary of State in the sense of these observations; and you may also place at the disposal of his Excellency a copy of this despatch.

On the 21st January, 1863, Earl Russell wrote to Mr. Paget as follows:—

I transmit to you a copy of a despatch from M. Hall to M. de Bille, which was delivered to me by M. de Bille on the 10th inst. I did not discuss with M. de Bille the arguments contained in this despatch, which have nothing in them of novelty. I merely noticed to him the omission of any reference to the admission he had himself made to me that the inhabitants of Schleswig were not allowed to petition the sovereign in any greater number than three, and that German newspapers were not allowed to circulate in Schleswig. M. de Bille answered me that he supposed M. Hall considered these points as unimportant. M. Hall wishes that this controversy should not be carried further, and her Majesty's Government see no advantage in prolonging it. There are some points, however, which I wish you to bear in mind in case M. Hall should raise in conversation the topic of the German Duchies and the situation of Schleswig. The first point is, that the recent negotiation between Austria, Prussia, and Denmark was brought about by her Majesty's Government in 1861, in order to avert the federal execution, which was threatened in the beginning of that year by the committee of the Diet of the German Confederation.

Her Majesty's Government then stated that while the boundaries of Holstein and Schleswig were unsettled and still in dispute, and while the passions both of Germans and of Danes were highly excited, an occupation of Holstein by German troops would not fail to be attended with danger to the relations of peace between Germany and Denmark, and might lead to hostilities in which all Europe might be involved.

Both parties after some time listened to these representations, and a direct negotiation was set on foot in the autumn of 1861. But in the middle of the summer of 1862, it appeared to her Majesty's Government that the negotiation, instead of producing a settlement, had tended more and more towards bitterness and strife, leading probably in the end to a rupture. You may remember that in speaking to you at Brussels in the beginning of September, when I was proceeding to Germany in attendance upon her Majesty, I pointed out to you this state of things, and gave you an outline of the mode of settlement which had occurred to me. That mode of settlement was developed in my despatch of September 24, which you were charged to take to Copenhagen on your return to that capital. Had that mode of settlement been adopted by the Danish Government, it is probable that a normal budget sufficient for the ordinary wants of the monarchy would have been voted for ten years by Denmark, Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg. The sums thus voted would have been expended under the direction of a council, composed two-thirds of Danish and one-third of German members. Germany could have had no right to interfere in these internal arrangements of the Danish monarchy, and it is probable that at the end of ten years the passions excited would have calmed down, and the dispute would have been forgotten in the general contentment. It has not pleased the Danish Government to take this course. The Danish Government has a perfect right to refuse this proposition of Great Britain, which was made in the most friendly spirit towards Denmark.

But the Government of Great Britain, while upholding the integrity and independence of Denmark, must still maintain that there are certain engagements of the King of Denmark which he is bound in honour to fulfil. Count Manderström, however favourable to the Danish Government, admits that Denmark has not yet fulfilled her engagements to place her German on a footing of equality with her Danish subjects. Her Majesty's Government must add, that it is not for the interest any more than it is for the reputation of the King to place his German subjects in a situation inferior to that of his subjects of Danish origin, either as to privilege or as to favour.

On the 21st January, Earl Russell sent to Mr. Paget a memorandum relating to the progress of the questions still pending between Denmark and Germany since the beginning of the year 1861, as follows:—

In January 1861 the committee of the Diet were engaged in considering the proposal of Oldenburg for enforcing the Diet's demands of February, 1858, by Federal execution. On the 17th of January, the committee made their report to the Diet, and proposed:—1. To declare the royal patent of September 1859 void, as long as it has not obtained the consent of the states of the duchies. 2. To summon the Danish Government to declare whether they will comply with the Federal decree of March 8, 1860, respecting the establishment of a "provisorium" for the duchies. 3. To fall back upon the Federal decree of August 12, 1858, in case the Danish Government does not give a satisfactory declaration within six weeks.

The objects to be enforced by Federal execution in Holstein were stated to be:—1. That during the "provisorium," all projects of laws submitted to the Reichsrath should be laid before the Holstein and Lauenburg States, in order to preserve the equal rights of the duchies; and that no law concerning the common affairs of the monarchy, *especially in matters of finance*, should be issued for the duchies without the sanction of their states. 2. That the definitive statement of the constitutional state of things in the duchies should be entered upon by the Danish Government, in conformity with the assurances given to the German Confederation in 1851. Six weeks' delay was to be accorded to the Danish Cabinet for their reply, and a further delay of six weeks would occur on the expiration of that time.

Her Majesty's Government continued to urge conciliation on the Danish Government; and their views of the proceedings of the Confederation were stated by Lord Russell, in a despatch to Lord Cowley, of February 23, to be that the Confederation would be justified in enforcing (even by Federal execution) the submission to the Holstein States of the votes for the taxes and expenditure. With regard to Schleswig, Lord Russell said, "It is a Danish duchy; and although both the honour and interest of Denmark require that Schleswig should be equitably treated, the king could not, without danger, treat with Germany respecting the terms to be given to that duchy." On the 27th of February Lord Cowley was instructed to settle with the French Government the advice to be given to Denmark, and an identic instruction was accordingly sent to the French and English representatives at Copenhagen to urge the Danish Government to agree to submit to the Holstein States the quota to be furnished by Holstein to the common expenses of the monarchy. The Russian and Swedish representatives joined in this representation, but it failed to persuade M. Hall, who adhered to the measures which he stated had already been agreed

upon by the Danish Government. The report of the committee had been adopted by the Diet on the 7th February, and on the 6th March the Holstein States met at Itzehoe, and appointed a committee to consider the propositions submitted to them by the Danish Government. The propositions were as follow :—1. A new provisional constitution for the monarchy, viz., the Imperial Council to be divided into two chambers; the members of one to be nominated by the Crown, the other to be elective. The qualification to vote for members to be reduced one-half, and the new body to have the right of initiative in legislation. 2. A project of law for provisionally determining the position of the duchy of Holstein in regard to the common affairs of the monarchy. 3. The project of a new constitution for the special affairs of Holstein.

The first project of law was divided into sixteen sections. The thirteenth, which dealt with the question of the budget, was as follows :—“ Holstein to contribute a fixed portion of the common expenses of the monarchy here specified, which cannot be increased without the consent of the states. For the financial year, from April 1, 1861, to March 31, 1862, the budget of the preceding year, as fixed by the royal resolution of September 23, 1859, is to be the rule.”

The report of the committee upon the general propositions recommended the absolute rejection of the first two proposals, and coupled its acceptance of the third with a condition which would ensure its rejection by Denmark.

The controversy was practically narrowed down to the question as to whether or not the Danish Government would agree to the principle of equal legislative rights between the Danish and Holstein assemblies, as embodied in the particular act of submitting the budget of 1861-62 to the deliberative vote of the states, i. e., to a vote which should be binding in its effects upon that portion of the public income of the united monarchy for which Holstein was to be assessed.

The Danish Government were repeatedly urged by her Majesty's Government, supported by the Governments of France and Russia, to lay the budget for 1861-62 before the States, but their communications to the States on this point were so ambiguous that it became a disputed point whether or not the Government had submitted the budget for their consideration. M. Hall stated that the royal resolution of September 23, 1859, by which the share of Holstein in the common expenses was regulated, was inserted in the 13th article of the project of law, and that the submission of that article to the States was, consequently, equivalent to the submission of the budget for their acceptance or rejection, while the committee of the States maintained that no budget for the monarchy had been laid before them, and declared that it would have been useless to treat as a budget the proposals of the Government, it being clear that a veto would not be allowed them. They finally rejected the propositions of the Danish Government on the 9th of April, and on the 11th the session was closed.

On the 19th of April Lord Russell sent to Paris, St. Petersburg, and Stockholm, the following proposals for the settlement of all the questions in dispute between Germany and Denmark :—1. That the quota of the common budget which affects Holstein and Denmark be submitted to the States of those duchies for their assent, amendment, or rejection. 2. That the laws which affect Holstein and Lauenburg be submitted in the same manner to the States of the duchies. 3. That Schleswig shall send repre-

sentatives to the parliament of Denmark to vote the common expenses of the monarchy and all laws affecting the monarchy. 4. That the separate Diet of Schleswig shall remain as at present. Its functions to consist in voting local expenses and in providing by equal laws for the welfare of the Danish, German, and other inhabitants of Schleswig. 5. When these terms are assented to and solemnly proclaimed by the King of Denmark. France, Great Britain, Russia, and Sweden to guarantee the possession of Schleswig to the crown of Denmark. 6. That commissioners be appointed, one for Denmark, one for Germany, and one for the Four Powers, to define the boundary of Schleswig. 7. That the treaty and engagements of 1852, so far as they are not altered by these articles, should be inviolably maintained.

Lord Russell further explained the opinion of her Majesty's Government to Mr. Paget, that there should be a union of the crown, or "personal union" of Denmark and Holstein, which would leave the Rigsraad free and the States of Holstein free.

In a further development of these proposals, Lord Russell, after alluding to the apprehension entertained by each party in the dispute that the real object of the other was the incorporation of Schleswig in Denmark or in Holstein respectively, laid down the three following points as those in which a solution might be found:—1. Separation of Holstein from Danish provinces in the same way as Luxemburg is separated from Holland. 2. Union of Schleswig with Denmark for purposes common to the monarchy. 3. Local representative body in Schleswig for guarantee of rights of German inhabitants. Lord Russell proposed that his plans should be simply communicated to the Confederation, and that they should be left to accept or reject them as they thought fit.

These proposals formed the subject of discussion between her Majesty's Government and the French and Russian Governments during the month of May, but they eventually fell to the ground in consequence of the difficulties raised by these Governments; and her Majesty's Government then, as a means of averting for a time the threatened Federal execution, urged the Danish Government to give effect to a proposition which originated with M. Hall's circular of March 22. This proposition was founded on a personal opinion therein expressed by M. Hall, that the Danish Government would prefer to surrender the quota of Holstein in the common expenses for the year 1861-62, and to be satisfied with the annual budget as far as Holstein was concerned, rather than be exposed to a Federal execution for an interest of such small proportional importance.

Lord Russell also addressed a despatch to her Majesty's Minister at Berlin, dwelling on the dangers of a Federal execution in Holstein, and again pointing out the following obvious results which would ensue:—1. That Denmark might contest by arms the occupation of Holstein by German Federal troops, and thus a state of war might arise between Germany and Denmark, of which it would be almost impossible to define the limits. 2. That a disputed frontier might cause border skirmishes, and thus lead to actual war. 3. That some chance collision between excited and embittered parties might extend the scope of the contest, and change it from a question concerning German territory, which affects Germany chiefly, into a question concerning "the maintenance of the integrity of the Danish monarchy," which "as connected with the general interests of the balance of power in Europe," is declared, in the Treaty of London of the 8th of May, 1852, to be "of high importance to the preservation of peace."

The questions, therefore, to be considered were:—1. Whether Denmark would give up the Danish budget for the year, to avoid a Federal execution, on the understanding that serious negotiations should be undertaken before April, 1862; and—2. Whether the Confederation would agree to defer Federal execution if the Danish Government authorized her Majesty's Government to make a declaration in their name to that effect. A conference in London in the autumn was proposed, as the best means of finally settling the questions at issue.

The Danish Government, being pressed as to its readiness to adhere to its part of the above proposal, M. Hall explained that his suggestion referred only to the sacrifice of any particular item of the supplementary budget which might be objected to by the Holstein States, and not to the surrender of the whole. He also insisted on the necessity for Denmark of a definite result before the meeting of the Rigsraad in October, 1862.

The Prussian Government, on the other hand, expressed their readiness to recommend to the Confederation the delay of execution, and the subsequent renewal of direct negotiations, if Denmark would make the declaration as recommended by her Majesty's Government. With regard to the proposal for a European conference, the Prussian Government did not think the time favourable, and the Danish Government made difficulties as to the question of Schleswig being discussed in a conference, on the ground that they could never allow Schleswig to be made a subject of negotiation in Germany. France and Russia supported the representations of her Majesty's Government, but the idea of a conference having fallen to the ground, the Danish Government were unwilling to make the required declaration respecting the budget, if direct negotiations with Germany were to be the only result.

Being pressed, however, by her Majesty's Government, who undertook to endeavour to bring about a friendly mediation on the part of the Great Powers if direct negotiations failed, the Danish Government eventually complied, and notified their intention accordingly to the Prussian and Austrian Governments.

They urged, at the same time, that the negotiations should be entered upon at once, and the means by which they proposed to arrive at an understanding were thus defined by M. Hall:—"So to regulate the relations of Holstein that the king may be able to comply with the demands of the Diet as to the more complete autonomy of that duchy, without thereby attacking the independence of the parts of the monarchy which do not belong to the Confederation."

The Diet met on the 12th August to receive the Danish communication, and agreed to the postponement of Federal execution.

The Prussian Government replied to the Danish communication in a conciliatory manner.

The Diet then adjourned, without giving any positive authority to Austria and Prussia to negotiate with Denmark on behalf of the Confederation; and this omission, coupled with the retirement of Baron Schleinitz from the Prussian Foreign Office, were alleged by the Prussian Government as reasons for delaying the commencement of the negotiations. The Danish Government were most anxious that something should be done before the time for the meeting of the Rigsraad in October, and her Majesty's Government repeatedly urged Prussia to hasten the commencement of negotiations.

The Governments of France, Russia, and Sweden joined with her Majesty's Government in these representations; but it was not until the end of October that Count Bernstorff, the new Prussian Minister for Foreign Affairs, expressed his readiness to receive the Danish propositions. The Danish Foreign Minister, thereupon, forwarded proposals to Vienna and Berlin, the principal points of which were:—1. That under existing circumstances, a provisional arrangement only could be come to. 2. That, considering the difficulties likely to arise from the action of the two Assemblies (of Denmark and Holstein) on affairs common to both, it would be desirable, as far as possible, to limit the sphere of that action; and, therefore, that all affairs respecting which separate action can be taken by either Assembly, without prejudice to the common interests, should be subject to the separate legislative action of each. 3. The army and details of taxation (not including the tariff) to come under the above head. 4. The appointment of joint committees of the two Assemblies to settle questions in dispute. 5. In case of disagreement between the two Chambers, the Government to reserve the power of carrying out in one part of the monarchy the resolutions of its Assembly, although not adopted by the Assembly of the other part. 6. The States of Holstein to have the right—(a.) Of making grants in the financial department. (b.) Of determining the expenditure in their share of these branches of the common expenditure which would by this plan be placed exclusively under their legislative action. (c.) Of voting the expenditure for the provincial affairs of the duchy. 7. These rights to apply only to the sums to be voted by each Assembly for the common affairs in excess of the normal budget which would be fixed by the Government.

A joint answer was given by the two German Governments on the 5th of December. They expressed dissatisfaction at the tenor of the communication, and objected to it on the ground—1. That only a provisional settlement was proposed. 2. That the proposals did not differ from those which had already been rejected by the Holstein States. 3. That the arrangements of 1852 were not taken as the basis of the proposals. 4. That the position of Schleswig was not alluded to. The despatch concluded by observations on the mal-administration of Schleswig.

The Danish Government lost no time in forwarding a rejoinder to the German communication, in which they stated at length the reasons which made it impossible to come at once to a definitive settlement. They endeavoured to prove by an historical retrospect of the question that the proceedings of the German Confederation and the threats of Federal execution had made it impossible for Denmark to carry out fully the proclamation of 1862, and they protested against the introduction into the discussion of the question of Schleswig, which they did not admit to be within the competency of the Confederation. They, however, defended the administration of that duchy against the attacks of the German despatch, and reiterated their hopes that a settlement might be arrived at.

Her Majesty's Government urged the Danish Government to adopt a liberal policy towards Schleswig, but the latter maintained the impossibility of making any concessions to that duchy before the Holstein affair was settled; and such concessions must, they said, be made *proprio motu*, and not in compliance with the demands of the German Confederation, which had no right to interfere in the relations between Schleswig and Denmark.

A despatch from the Swedish Government, supporting the views of

Denmark, was communicated to her Majesty's Government, and in replying to it Lord Russell, while admitting that Schleswig is no part of the Confederation, and can only be treated as part of a European kingdom, maintained that the King of Denmark was bound by his promises to Prussia and Austria, and that he should "enable himself to show to Germany and Europe that his promises of 1852 were scrupulously carried into execution; that his German subjects in Schleswig were, equally with his Danish subjects, the objects of his impartial protection; and that the local Diet of Schleswig, fairly elected and fairly constituted, has all the powers necessary for the well-being and social happiness of Schleswig."

This despatch was communicated to the Danish and Prussian Governments. In the conversation which ensued on its communication to M. Hall, that minister objected that the task set by her Majesty's Government to Denmark was impossible to execute, and that Germany never would be satisfied. He maintained that all the promises made to Austria and Prussia had been already fulfilled; that with regard to the equality of Germans and Danes in Schleswig, it was not included in those promises, but only in the royal patent, which was not an international document; and he stated that the King intended to make concessions, but that he must choose his own time. Count Bernstorff, on the other hand, stated that no settlement could be accepted which did not include Schleswig, and that what Germany wanted was "political reform" in that duchy, and that the engagements taken by Denmark comprised non-incorporation and equality of Schleswig, and these could not be fulfilled so long as the Reichsrath existed in its present form. Count Bernstorff contended that Denmark should give to Schleswig the same constitution as to Holstein, and Schleswig should cease to be represented in the Reichsrath; but in his (Count Bernstorff's) opinion, the only real solution of the question was to be found in the partition of that duchy.

The Rigsraad met on the 25th of January. The royal speech notified the intention of the Government to grant greater freedom to Schleswig, especially a more popular foundation to its provincial institutions, which, it said, might be accomplished without danger to the peace and unity of the country when the settlement of the differences with the German Confederation had secured Schleswig against foreign intervention. With regard to the budget, the speech stated that the Rigsraad would vote the common expenses only for Denmark and Schleswig.

On the 8th of February the Austrian and Prussian Governments addressed a further joint note to Denmark, in which, after repeating their objections to the provisional character of the Danish proposals, they asked categorically whether the Danish Government did or did not recognize the binding character of the promises made by it in 1851-52 respecting Holstein and Schleswig, and whether it would or would not make these promises the basis of negotiation with the German Powers.

A further note was sent by the two Governments to Copenhagen, protesting against any legislation of the Rigsraad which would affect the relations of Schleswig to the kingdom.

On the 6th of February Lord Russell, in commenting on the language used by Count Bernstorff, as reported in Lord A. Loftus's despatch of January 25, limited the demands which Austria and Prussia were entitled, in the opinion of her Majesty's Government, to make, to the following:—

1. That the decrees of the German Confederation in respect to Holstein and

Lauenburg should be obeyed. 2. That the provisions of 1851-52 should be scrupulously fulfilled.

Count Bernstorff professed an entire concurrence with this opinion when Lord Russell's despatch was communicated to him, but in a further interview with Lord A. Loftus he re-asserted his opinion that to satisfy Germany the Reichsrath for Schleswig must be abolished, and reverted to the plan for a partition of Schleswig as the only real solution of the question.

The Danish Government communicated a memorandum to her Majesty's Government, in which their view of the Schleswig question was re-asserted, and the danger of exciting faction and discord in Schleswig if the concessions were to be made in consequence of the unauthorized interference of Germany, was pointed out.

They maintained that the existing state of things was part and parcel of the Constitution of Schleswig, and could not be altered but by a vote of the Schleswig Diet. Lord Russell urged that that assembly would joyfully accept such concessions, if offered.

These representations were, however, as fruitless as the former ones. M. Hall protested that the promises of 1851-52 did not extend to liberty of the press and of petition. He defended the church and school system, and affirmed that it would require changes in the Schleswig constitution to alter them. Such changes could not be made without the consent of the Schleswig Diet, and it was impossible to convoke that Diet until the situation produced by the recent proceedings of Austria and Prussia at Frankfort was cleared up.

The proceedings here alluded to were a proposition made by Austria and Prussia to the committee of the Diet that that assembly should express its approval of the recent despatches of the two Governments respecting Schleswig. The Danish Minister recorded his protest against these proceedings, and M. Hall stated that such an introduction of Schleswig into a resolution of the Diet would be the first overt act of interference of the Diet in the affairs of Schleswig, and he added that any hostile measures taken in consequence of the proposition would be regarded by Denmark not as Federal execution, but as war.

The Danish Government replied on the 12th March to the Austro-Prussian note of February 8. They declared their intention of adhering to the engagements of 1851-52, but denied the right of Germany to impose on Denmark her arbitrary interpretation of those engagements. They denied the right of Germany to interfere with the relations of Schleswig to the monarchy, and stated that if the questions of Holstein and Schleswig were treated together, and the Diet subsequently took any active measures to enforce their demands, such measures not being confined to objects purely German, but partaking of an international character, would be considered by Denmark not as Federal execution, but as war. They then demanded an explicit answer to their proposals of October 26, and ended by asking what the position really was which the Confederation claimed for Holstein.

The Danish answer was considered very unsatisfactory at Vienna and Berlin. The German Courts persisted in maintaining that the questions of Holstein and Schleswig could not be separated, and that a settlement of the former could not be agreed to without an arrangement as to the latter, while Denmark protested against this doctrine, and especially against the introduction of Schleswig into the report of the committees of the Diet.

This report was, however, adopted by the Diet on the 13th of March. It is right to state that Count Bernstorff's plan for the partition of Schleswig was disapproved by the Austrian Foreign Minister, who, however, left the conduct of the negotiation with Denmark entirely in the hands of Prussia.

Count Platen, the Hanoverian minister, having, at the request of Lord Russell, drawn up a memorandum of his views for the settlement of the duchies question, Lord Russell forwarded it to Copenhagen, and desired Mr. Paget to recommend to M. Hall's consideration two of the plans therein proposed.

The first of these was a plan for a general representation of the monarchy in the Rigsraad elected in each portion of the monarchy according to population, with the proviso that no resolution of the Rigsraad should pass without the assent of two-thirds of the assembly.

The second proposed to substitute for the Rigsraad two chambers: the one elected according to population and voting by a simple majority; the other a kind of senate in which each State should be equally represented.

Mr. Paget was authorized, in case M. Hall was not totally averse to one or other of these plans, to proceed to Holstein and recommend them to the leading men of the duchy, in the hope that Denmark and Holstein might together agree on the terms of an arrangement without the intervention of Germany.

Mr. Paget accordingly communicated the plans in question to M. Hall, who, however, condemned them as impracticable and declined to entertain them.

Lord Russell about the same time addressed the French Government, urging the advantage of the Governments of Great Britain, France, and Russia coming to an understanding on the question, and suggesting the possibility of obtaining the concurrence of the duchies in some plan of arrangement without the intervention of Germany.

A few days later he addressed an identic despatch to Paris, St. Petersburg, and Stockholm, proposing that, in view of the dangers threatened to the integrity of Denmark by the recent resolution of the Diet respecting Schleswig, the four Governments should call upon Austria, Prussia, and the Diet, for explanations as to their views and intentions respecting Schleswig. The French Government, however, declined to adopt the suggestions of her Majesty's Government.

The last note of the Danish Government to the German Powers remained unanswered, and early in May the Danish Government, in a note communicated to the four non-German Powers, complained bitterly of this delay, and intimated their intention of breaking off the negotiations, and appealing to the non-German Powers if an arrangement was not shortly come to.

The Prussian Government, on the other hand, addressed an angry rejoinder to the Danish note of May 8th to their representatives at the four Courts.

It was not until July that a draft of the answer to be given to the Danish despatch of the 12th March was laid before the Austrian Government by Prussia; and further delay occurred from an objection on the part of Austria to adopt the wording of the Prussian draft. Count Rechberg proposed simply to communicate to Denmark the adhesion of Austria to the Prussian despatch; but this not being considered satisfactory by Count Bernstorff, Count Rechberg proceeded to draw up a draft to be

substituted for the Prussian one as an identic communication from the two Governments to Denmark.

It was finally agreed that each Government should present its own communication, which was accordingly done on the 25th of August.

The Prussian despatch, after re-asserting the right of the Diet to insist on the fulfilment of the Danish engagements respecting Schleswig, proceeded to define the claims of Germany arising from the engagements of 1851-52, as follows:—1. An independent and equally privileged position for the various parts of the Danish monarchy in regard to their separate affairs, and an organic and equal union of them for their common affairs; no portion to be incorporated into or made subservient to another. 2. Equal rights for Holstein of voting the laws and budget common to the monarchy. 3. The above condition to apply equally to Schleswig. 4. The principle of representation in the common organization to be such that the duchies may not suffer from their numerical inferiority. 5. The executive Government to be responsible to the duchies as well as to the kingdom. 6. The duchies to be represented by an independent organ in the executive. 7. The proposed organic institutions to be established by constitutional and legal means, with the co-operation of the assemblies of each part of the monarchy. 8. The non-political relations of Schleswig and Holstein to be maintained. 9. The rights of the University of Kiel to be protected. 10. Equal rights and effective protection to be granted to the German as well as the Danish nationality.

The points in which the engagements had been infringed were thus stated:—1. The *de facto* closer connection of Schleswig with the kingdom by which a preponderating influence is given to the latter. 2. The subordinate position of Holstein in regard to the common affairs, especially the budget. 3. The systematic destruction of all natural and neighbourly relations between Schleswig and Holstein. 4. Non-observance of engagements respecting the University of Kiel. 5. The introduction of Danish employes and Danish clergy. 6. The oppression of the German nationality, especially in regard to language.

The demands which Prussia accordingly made were:—1. Abolition of the common constitution of October 1855. 2. The submission to the several representative assemblies of a new project of constitution not based on the principle of universal representation. 3. The concession of equal influence in the common affairs to the several local assemblies. Until the general assembly is constituted, the Government to be equally responsible to each of them. 4. The *status quo ante* of 1848 with respect to language to be provisionally introduced into Schleswig, until a new law is passed with the sanction of the Schleswig assembly.

The Austrian communication, which was in the form of a memorandum, contained a long historical retrospect of the different phases of the question since 1846, and laid down the following points as the fundamental conditions of a settlement:—1. That a new constitutional law for common affairs should be agreed to by the several assemblies. 2. That a provision should be introduced for protecting the German element in this new constitution from the numerical majority of the Danes. 3. That all decrees and administrative measures oppressive to the Germans in Schleswig should be abolished, and the question of language, &c., regulated in concert with the Schleswig States.

The proposals of Austria and Prussia met with no better success at
[102]

Copenhagen than the former communications of those Governments, and on the 24th September, Lord Russell, on the part of her Majesty's Government, addressed to the courts of Vienna, Berlin, and Copenhagen, new proposals for the settlement of the question.

These proposals are thus summed up by Lord Russell:—1. Holstein and Lauenburg to have all that the German Confederation ask for them. 2. Schleswig to have the power of self-government, and not to be represented in the Reichsrath. 3. A normal budget for ten years to be agreed upon by Denmark, Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig. Its distribution to be confided to a council of State formed two-thirds of Danes and one-third of Germans. 4. Any extraordinary expenses to be submitted to the Rigsraad, and to the separate Diets of Holstein, Lauenburg, and Schleswig.

The above proposals were submitted to the cabinets of Vienna, Berlin, and Copenhagen. The Austrian and Prussian Governments expressed their readiness to accept them as the basis of a settlement, and to recommend them as such to the Diet.

The reply of the Danish Government was unfavourable. They stated that they were prepared to consent to the vote of the common budget and common laws by the Holstein States, provided the eventual position of Holstein should be clearly defined, and the relations of Denmark with the Confederation be placed by this sacrifice on a permanent basis. But with regard to the proposals affecting Schleswig they declined to entertain them, on the ground that the concessions to that duchy must be made by the King's free will; and they rejected the proposal for the abolition of the common constitution of Denmark and Schleswig on the ground that it would lead to the dismemberment of the monarchy.

Lord Russell replied to the objections of the Danish Government, further explaining his views respecting the proposals, and urging their adoption. Reverting to the grievances of the Duchy of Schleswig, the existence of which were, he said, established by the admissions of M. Bille made personally to him, and the report of a British agent specially sent by her Majesty's Government to that duchy, (Mr. Rainalds) he stated that in view of the repeated refusal of Denmark to remedy these grievances, it had become necessary for Denmark to select one of the four following courses:—1. To allow the present state of uneasiness and danger to continue till it ended in some violent explosion. 2. To adopt a common constitution, in which the German element would have more weight than mere numbers would give it. 3. To divide Schleswig into two parts, of which one to be German, and closely connected with Holstein, and the other to be Danish, and incorporated with Denmark. 4. To adopt a plan framed upon the basis of the proposals of September 24. Her Majesty's Government thought the last course the most favourable to the integrity and independence of Denmark, and therefore most in accordance with the treaty of London.

Early in November the Danish Government had sent answers to the last despatches of Austria and Prussia, and had laid down the three following points as embodying their views:—1. That the secession of Holstein and Lauenburg from the common constitution, which was the result of a decree of the German Confederation, does not affect the legality of the constitution of Denmark and Schleswig. 2. That the only new constitutional arrangement which the Danish Government can entertain is to give to the

Holstein States "a legislative and financial authority in common affairs, by the side of, and in conjunction with, the existing Rigsraad for the other parts of the monarchy that do not belong to the German Confederation." 3. That the internal relations of the duchy of Schleswig, including the language regulations, cannot be subjects of investigation or discussion on the part of the Confederation.

Lord Russell, in remarking on these points, stated that he considered them less advantageous to the real interests of Denmark than his proposals, as under such a system the Holstein States would be less likely to grant supplies for military and naval expenditure; and he thought that the result of this plan, which was intended to withdraw all German influence from the Government of Denmark proper and Schleswig, would be to enfeeble and impair the Danish monarchy as a whole.

M. Hall replied that he would prefer trusting to the normal budget, which, according to his plan, would be secure, to submitting a new one to the four assemblies as proposed by Lord Russell, which might lead to the refusal by Holstein of any supplies whatever for the navy.

On receiving the Danish note, the Prussian Government intimated its intention of discontinuing the negotiations for the present, and of making a communication to the Diet, in which the proposals of her Majesty's Government should be recommended as the basis of an arrangement. A proposal in this sense was accordingly made to the Vienna Cabinet, and agreed to by them.

The intentions of the Danish Government as to its future course of action are, according to Mr. Paget—"To convoke the Holstein States, and to submit to them their quota of the common budget for the present financial period, as well as other laws of common interest. If the credits are refused, and the laws rejected, a complete separation of Holstein from the rest of the monarchy, save and except the union of the Crown, will be the probable result. The States of Schleswig to be also assembled, a project of constitution by which the liberty of the press, right of meeting, &c., will be guaranteed, to be offered to them. A new electoral law to be also proposed to them, on the acceptance of which the ultimate promulgation of a new constitution will probably be made to depend."

Mr. Paget recently reported that the Russian minister having by order of his Government urged M. Hall to accept the proposals of her Majesty's Government as a basis of arrangement, was convinced by the language of that minister that it was hopeless to attempt to obtain from the Danish Government any departure from the line of policy they had laid down.

Lord Russell, in replying to M. Paget on the 6th January, stated that he entirely agreed with this opinion, and that her Majesty's Government being interested in the question only in so far as it concerned the peace of Europe and the welfare of Denmark, would be happy to find that the propositions to be made by the Danish Government to Holstein and Schleswig fulfil the expectations and meet with the acceptance both of Holstein and of Schleswig.

The Swedish Government objected to Lord Russell's proposals on the ground that it would be impossible for the Danish Government to manage four Parliaments; but Count Manderström, in conversation with Mr. Jer-ningham, expressed a hope that a satisfactory arrangement might ultimately grow out of them. He admitted that the Danish Government had not fulfilled their engagement to place the Germans in Schleswig upon an equal

footing with the Danes, and stated that he had expressed, and should continue to express, an opinion to that effect at Copenhagen, as he thought that the worst consequences might result from the persistence of the Danish Government in the non-fulfilment of their engagements, whereas when they had once fulfilled them they might fearlessly challenge public sympathy.

The French Government have given merely a general support to the principles embodied in Lord Russell's proposals.

A decree has been signed for the assembly of the Holstein States.

The answer of the Danish Government to Lord Russell's despatch of the 20th November was communicated on the 10th January. With regard to Holstein, the despatch touches on the concession of a vote in the common affairs, which it characterizes as "a notable sacrifice extorted by the force of circumstances," and not a duty, as stated by Lord Russell; and it defines the limits of the power of the Confederation over its members. With regard to Schleswig, the despatch goes again over the old ground, and asserts that the Confederation has no right to interfere, and that the engagements taken by Denmark have been carried into effect. It defends the administration of Schleswig, and throws doubts on the correctness of the report alluded to in Lord Russell's despatch. Finally, it states the following as the only course left open to Denmark:—1. To accept the necessity of granting to the Holstein States the position which the Frankfort Diet exacts, but with the reserves necessary to prevent that province becoming the master and arbiter of the destinies of the remainder of the monarchy. 2. Schleswig to remain out of the action of the Confederation, and to preserve her constitutional relations with the kingdom for common affairs.

The first point, the despatch concludes, will remove all pretext for a Federal execution in Holstein. The second is a condition indispensable to the existence of a Danish State.

Lord Russell replied in a despatch to Mr. Paget, dated the 21st of January. His lordship therein stated that her Majesty's Government saw no advantage in prolonging this controversy, but mentioned the following points for Mr. Paget's guidance, in case of any future conversation with M. Hall on the question of the Danish duchies:—

That the recent negotiations between Austria, Prussia, and Denmark were brought about, in 1861, by her Majesty's Government, in order to avoid a Federal execution. That these negotiations having produced no result, his lordship had given to Mr. Paget, at Brussels, in the beginning of September, an outline of the plan of settlement subsequently developed in his despatch of the 24th of that month. That had that plan been adopted, it might have averted interference on the part of Germany, and given time for the passions excited to cool down. That the Danish Government had a perfect right to refuse this proposal, but that her Majesty's Government must still consider that there were certain engagements of the King of Denmark which he was bound in honour to fulfil, and that it was not for his Majesty's interest any more than for his reputation to place his German subjects in a situation inferior to that of his subjects of Danish origin, either as privilege or as to favour.

SOUTHERN ITALY.

Correspondence respecting Southern Italy.

On the 29th January, 1862, Earl Russell received a despatch from Consul Bonham, showing that the prospects of commerce were very favourable. Complaints were made on the export duty on olive oil, since the crop had been very abundant. The new currency of lire had been introduced in substitution for the Neapolitan currency of ducats and grains.

On the 25th February, another despatch was received from the same, giving an account of a demonstration which had taken place on the 9th against the temporal power of the Pope.

From the early morning all the Toledo was adorned with flags bearing inscriptions alluding to the circumstance. Although the weather was cold and rainy, Toledo was also crowded by people. About mid-day the demonstration, composed of all classes of citizens, divided itself into two sections: a very numerous one with flags at its head traversed the Toledo; the other, much larger, went to the house of the French consul. It was an imposing spectacle, and which contrasted strangely with the assertions of Cardinal Antonelli relative to the sentiments of the Italian people. Here were, not a few individuals, but an immense crowd composed of every class of every rank of persons without exception; the Liberal clergy figured everywhere.

In the section which traversed the Toledo the following inscriptions were legible on a great national flag: "Long live the Pope!" "Down with the temporal power!" "Long live Victor Emmanuel II. in the Campidoglio!" "Long live Garibaldi!" in addition to which other papers were seen affixed to the walls of the Toledo, and on the flags which flew about from the houses with these words: "Long live the Pope not King!" "Long live Italy with its King in the Campidoglio!" "Long live France with its Emperor!" That portion of the demonstration which went to the French consul-general's house, and which was, we must say, the greatest portion, had also its flags with the same inscriptions; it traversed with a band at its head the entire Toledo, and stopped at the square of the Plebiscite before the Foresteria Palace; there the usual cheers, the same acclamations, but the prefect not appearing at the balcony, the crowd went towards St. Lucia and stopped under the windows of the French consulate. To the reiterated cries of "Long live the Emperor!" "Long live France!" "Long live the French people!" "Long live Victor Emmanuel in the capital!" "Down with the Pope-King!" the French consul appeared at the window to thank the people; as the crowd stopped there some time shouting, so the consul courteously went out on the balcony many times also with his lady.

After the manifestation at the French consulate had terminated, the crowd also went to the house of the British consul; there were also clamorous and continuous cries of "Long live England!" Afterwards the demonstration returned towards the Toledo, and dispersed tranquilly little by little, so that not the slightest accident was to be deplored. In the moment in which we write the most perfect tranquillity reigns everywhere. Moreover, as an appendix to the imposing demonstration, the following protest is circulating in our city: it is already covered with thousands of

signatures, and it continues to be signed by all. This is its tenor: "If the Holy Father has broken with the cabinet of Turin, he finds himself in excellent relations with the Italian people.—CARDINAL ANTONELLI."

"Down with the Pope-King! 'Long live Rome, capital of Italy!' The Italian people, jealous guardian of its dignity and of its sacred rights, protests strongly against the words of Cardinal Antonelli, and declares:—1. That the above-named cardinal is guilty of calumny against the nation. 2. That the Italian people is one with the Government in wishing all Italy to belong to the Italians, and in overthrowing the greatest obstacle to our unity—the temporal power of the Popes. 3. And that it will cease to fight against the popedom only when Italy shall be recognized in Rome, its legitimate capital."

On the same date, the 25th February, Earl Russell received despatches from Sir J. Hudson, stating that brigandage was being organized under the authority of the ex-King of Naples, and the patronage of the Court of Rome, and that Garibaldi had desired all the patriotic associations of Italy to send delegates to a meeting at Genoa. Consul Bonham also intimated that preparations were in progress by Bourbon agents at Marseilles, at Barcelona, and also at Malta, to embark a certain number of adventurers for a landing in the Neapolitan territory.

On the 25th March, Earl Russell received a despatch from Consul Bonham, respecting the alleged cruelties of the army in Naples, and sent a letter from Baron Valerio, enclosing a proclamation issued by a Major Fumel, to the following effect:—

"The undersigned, charged with the destruction of brigandage, promises a reward of 100 francs for every brigand, alive or dead, who may be brought to him. This reward will be given to any brigand who shall kill his companion; moreover, his own life will be spared. In defiance of this, those who may give shelter or any means of subsistence or support to brigands, or seeing them or knowing the place where they have taken refuge, do not give information to the force and to the civil and military authorities, will be immediately shot.

"For the custody of animals, it will be well that they should be brought into several central spots, with a sufficient armed force, because it will not be of use without a considerable force. All straw huts must be burnt, the towers and country houses which are not inhabited and guarded by a force must be, within the space of three days, unroofed, and their entrances bricked up. After the expiration of that time they will, without fail, be burnt, as also all animals which are not in proper custody will be killed. It is prohibited to carry bread or any kind of provisions beyond the habitations of the communes, and whoever contravenes this will be considered an accomplice of the brigands.

"Provisionally, and for this circumstance, the syndics are authorized to grant permission to carry arms under the strict responsibility of the proprietor who shall make the request.

"Shooting as sport is also provisionally forbidden, and therefore no one may fire off a gun except to give notice to the armed posts of the presence of brigands, or else of their flight.

"The National Guard is responsible for the territory of their own commune.

"The undersigned does not mean to recognize, under present circum-

stances, but two parties—brigands and anti-brigands; therefore, he will class amongst the first those who are indifferent, and against these he will take energetic measures, for when the general necessity demands it, it is a crime to refuse.

“The disbanded soldiers who do not present themselves within the space of four days will be considered brigands.

“*Celico, March 1, 1862.* (Signed) IL MAGGIORE S. FUMEL.”

Consul Bonham showed this letter and proclamation to General La Marmora, but he disclaimed any connection with Fumel, and he stated that he did not belong to the staff; and that, moreover, all the accounts given of such cruelties were greatly exaggerated. Again, on the 29th March, Earl Russell received an account from Consul Bonham of what took place on the occasion of the funeral of the late Archbishop of Amalfi, elicited in consequence of an inquiry made in the House of Commons by Sir George Bowyer, whether her Majesty's Government had received information that, whilst the body of the deceased Archbishop of Amalfi was lying in state in the cathedral of that town, and whilst the funeral service was being chanted by the clergy, a party of revolutionists rushed into the church with drawn daggers and repeatedly stabbed the corpse of the prelate. What did occur was as follows:—Domenico Ventura, Archbishop of Amalfi, died, in Naples, on or about the 11th of February. The body was taken to Amalfi for interment. The usual religious ceremonies having been duly performed, the authorities required that, according to the existing law, which prohibits interments in churches, the body should be deposited in the Campo Santo, instead of in a vault in the cathedral, where, hertofore, it had been the custom to deposit the bodies of deceased bishops. Upon this a commotion took place amongst the population of Amalfi, especially amongst the women, who, carrying their wooden slippers, assembled in great numbers at the cathedral, and insisted on the old custom being adhered to. No regular troops are stationed at Amalfi. The National Guard, amongst whom, I am told, there are but twelve muskets, could not quell the disturbance. The authorities yielded, and the corpse was placed in a vault in the cathedral. A day or two after the occurrence, Signor Zoppi, prefect of Principato Citra, hearing what had taken place, sent a company of regulars from Salerno, and in their presence the coffin containing the corpse of the archbishop was removed from the vault in the cathedral, and deposited in the Campo Santo without any further disturbance. Such are the real facts of the case.

As to the further report, that an expectation existed in Naples that the tombs of the former Royal family in the church of Santa Chiara were likely to be violated, Consul Bonham was unable to trace any foundation whatever for that report. He was, unfortunately, not able, that day, to find the Brazilian consul-general, but he spoke to several of his colleagues, no one of whom had heard of such an unexpected occurrence any more than he had. He saw the civil prefect, M. Visone, and the secretary of the questor of police: they assured him that they had never heard one word on the subject; that no communication had been received by them from the Brazilian consul or minister relative to the protection of the tombs of the children of the Princess of Aquila; that there had never been the slightest reason to suppose there was danger of their being violated, and that they were utterly unable to devise how such a report could have originated.

AFFAIRS OF SYRIA.

Correspondence relating to the Affairs of Syria, 1860-61.

On the 5th July, 1860, Earl Cowley communicated the result of a conversation with M. Thouvenel respecting the massacres and horrors which the Christian population of the Lebanon had undergone at the hands of the Druses and Bedouin Arabs to which Lord John Russell answered that a British squadron would be sent to the coast of Syria. The French Government also directed two men-of-war to proceed to the same, and Russia and Austria agreed to co-operate.

On the 17th July, Count Persigny communicated a note of M. Thouvenel proposing the institution of a commission composed of delegates of the Powers and of the Porte. This commission should be sent into the Lebanon to ascertain the circumstances which have brought about the late conflicts, to determine the share of responsibility of the chiefs of the insurrection and of the agents of the local administration, as well as the compensation due to the victims, and lastly to study, for the purpose of submitting them to the approbation of their Governments and of the Porte, the arrangements which should be adopted with the view of averting fresh misfortunes. If, as the harmony which was spontaneously established in the views of all the courts at the news of the massacres in the Lebanon gives reason to hope, they should approve of this idea, they would have in their hands all the elements necessary to concert with the Porte an arrangement which, resulting from a profound examination and embracing an unanimous adhesion, would offer every possible chance of duration.

Subsequently the French Government made a proposal that European troops should be sent to Syria, but her Majesty's Government advised great deliberation and caution in proceeding to so exceptional a measure.

On the same 17th July, the Sultan sent the following telegram to her Majesty and to the Emperor of the French :—

Palace of Dolma-Badjé, July 16, 1860.

I am anxious that your Majesty should know well with what grief I have heard of the events in Syria. Let your Majesty be convinced that I shall employ all means in my power to re-establish order and security there, to punish severely the guilty, whoever they may be, and render justice to all. In order that there may be no doubt about the intentions of my Government, I have confided this important mission to my Minister for Foreign Affairs, whose principles are known to the Government of your Majesty.

And soon after the Sultan issued a firman to Fuad Pasha, conferring on him full powers for punishing all persons who have taken any part in the effusion of human blood in Syria, as follows :—

FIRMAN.

To my Vizier, Mehemed Fuad, one of the most illustrious Ministers and chief councillors of my empire, and Minister for Foreign Affairs, now appointed on an extraordinary and special mission to Syria, with full powers on my part, decorated with the first classes of the Orders of Medjidie and of distinction, and bearer of the Nishan Ifthihar of military service.

You who are my zealous Vizier as above.

I have learnt with the greatest concern the outbreak of war between the Maronites and Druses who inhabit Mount Lebanon in Syria, owing to a quarrel which has, as you know, arisen between them.

I need not tell you that the favourite object of my wishes is, that every class of my subjects, who are all equal in my eyes, should enjoy perfect security, ease, and contentment, and it is most especially and particularly my desire, that one people should not in any mode whatsoever commit an aggressive act on another. Therefore, the cruel and tyrannical acts which have been perpetrated in Mount Lebanon are altogether contrary to my wish, and it has become necessary to charge specially, and with full powers, some able, zealous, and intelligent person, for the purpose of putting an end to those excesses, and remove (or destroy) the persons who have provoked these internal troubles, and caused the effusion of human blood.

You are my intelligent Mushir above-mentioned, and one of my most illustrious Ministers, endowed with the above qualities, and in whom I have the most perfect confidence; I have ordered that you be appointed to this important charge with full powers on my part, and a sufficient number of troops has also been sent. So that acting with that perfect knowledge of State affairs, as well as with that zeal and intelligence which distinguishes you, and in accordance with your duty, you will, God helping, immediately start from here for that place, where you will be the referee of all civil and military functionaries. You will, by adopting the necessary measures, cause to cease the confusion and civil war which has ensued between the above Maronites and Druses, and procure the return of peace and security to those parts. You will ascertain who have been instrumental in the odious act of shedding human blood, and immediately punish them according to the prescriptions of my imperial code. In a word, you are freely entrusted with the adoption of all the military and civil measures, for the extinction of this evil. You will, therefore, act accordingly. Such is my order, &c.

On the 3rd August, Earl Cowley sent two protocols, which were signed at the Ministry for Foreign Affairs by the representatives of Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, Russia, and Turkey, the one sanctioning the French expedition to Syria, the other disclaiming all interested motives on the part of the allies of the Porte for undertaking this expedition. On the 14th August, Lord John Russell forwarded to Lord Dufferin the instructions of her Majesty's Government for his guidance as her Majesty's commissioner in Syria, as follows:—

Foreign Office, August 14, 1860.

MY LORD,—You are already informed of the object of the mission with which you are charged, as a member of the commission about to proceed to Syria, and you will easily understand that it is impossible for her Majesty's Government to foresee all the difficulties you will have to encounter, or to point out to you in detail the different matters on which you may have to treat. I will therefore confine myself at present to those general directions which may serve to guide your conduct, without giving any specific instructions.

Your first care, after putting yourself in relation with the commissioner of the Porte, and with those of Austria, France, Prussia, and Russia, will

be to inquire, in concert with them, into the origin and causes of the late deplorable events, to determine the share of responsibility incurred by the chiefs of the insurrection and the agents of the administration, and to call for the punishment of the guilty. The assurances which have been given at Constantinople, and the powers which the Turkish commissioner has received from the Sultan, exclude all doubt that you will find on his part all the assistance which you have a right to expect, in order that the inquiry which you will conduct in concert with him may have for its result the execution of severe and impartial justice with regard to the chiefs, as well as the subordinate instruments of crime.

It will be your duty, on the other hand, to appreciate the extent of the disasters which have been suffered by the Christians, and to consider of the means best fitted to alleviate, and even to indemnify, as far as possible, the losses which have been sustained. There is another point which equally deserves attention; I mean the arrangements which it may be useful to make in order to establish, for the future, order and security in Syria, and prevent the return of similar calamities. You will find in an equitable examination of facts, and of the circumstances which have given rise to them, the data necessary to enable you to suggest the modifications which it may be necessary to make in the present arrangements, and in the organization of the Lebanon, as settled in 1842 and 1845. A report on these modifications should be made by all the commissioners collectively.

Such are the only instructions which I have to give you. The commissioners of Austria, of France, of Prussia, and of Russia, will, I have reason to hope, receive instructions identical in substance; you will apply yourself to act with your colleagues in the spirit of harmony, and you will, I doubt not, find them animated by the same spirit.

I shall communicate the present instructions to her Majesty's ambassador, to whom as well as to me you will transmit your reports.

I shall also desire her Majesty's consuls in Syria to lend you every aid which may contribute to the success of your mission.

I am, &c.

(Signed) J. RUSSELL.

On the 15th September, Mr. Mowbray Morris, of the *Times* office, sent to Lord John Russell the following Druse account of the late events in Lebanon, which was entrusted by them to the special correspondent of the *Times*, for the information of her Majesty's Government:—

It is well known to the whole world, and the ears of people in all lands have been filled with the report that, ever since the year 57 A.H. (A.D. 1841), the Maronites have pertinaciously contemplated the uprooting of the Druse community from the Druse Mountain (Mounts Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon), and the establishment of their own independence therein; being puffed up with the idea of their great numbers and wealth, and being also led to pride by the representations of certain interested persons.

They commenced hostilities in the year above-mentioned, and in the year 61 (A.D. 1845), in hopes of bringing about this result. But God frustrated their rebellious designs, and punished them as their conduct had merited, so that it was thought they would not in future attempt such acts, or be puffed up with similar hopes.

But when the Bishop Bolus Missad became patriarch over the above-mentioned nation, the idea was again entertained by him, and the hope

tempted him to pride. With the advice and approval of Bishop Tubia 'Avn, and of others like him, he took and concerted measures necessary for the execution of the same.

They perceived that the most efficient means for the realization of their designs was unanimity, from which unity of purpose proceeds, and, since they saw it was possible for some of the chiefs of their people to rely on their own numbers, and refuse to act in concert with them, especially as the greater number of these chiefs were men of wealth, and surrounded by comforts, besides being known for their sentiments of kindness to women and children, to say nothing of their patriotism, they (the bishops) set themselves to work to undermine the consideration enjoyed by these chiefs, and to abrogate their rights, setting up in their stead persons who entertained similar views with themselves, and who would be mere tools in their own hands. In proof of this may be cited what occurred at Beytu-'l-Khazin, at Beyt-Jeyshed, and at other fiefs of the Christians, where they were expelled, their property was seized, and Tanoss Shahin, with others, were set up in their stead; also the spread of this same evil to the districts of Kati, Meten, &c.

Another requisite for their plans was the confidence (?) of their people, for herewith power is fortified. The proof that they set to work to secure this confidence consists in their having written and distributed pledge documents among the inhabitants of all the villages, binding them to act in concert, and in blind confidence. The purport of these documents became known, and several were got possession of, when they were found to contain that which is above set forth, and the wording of the whole was identical.

A third requisite was an alliance with the other Christian people, since thereby they would not only be directly strengthened, but would also be guaranteed from their opposition, for, in the two former risings, a considerable number had refused to participate in their proceedings, by reason that it was obvious that, after achieving the object of their desires, the Maronites would turn upon them and treat them as they had done others, unless they embraced Maronitism. The proof of this idea is the strenuous effort made to display affection, and to parade an unusual show of conciliation; also the issue of proclamations and manifestoes by the patriarch and bishops to the whole sect, to the effect that they should behave towards the people of other Christian denominations as if they were the children of one sole race, and to the Khawarina [priests?] to the effect that they might frequent their (Maronite) churches, be present at their masses and burials, contrary to what had been the custom. We saw all this in more places than one, and it was established beyond doubt by a multitude of people.

A fourth requisite was the existence of delegates, in the nature of a public assembly, in each of their principal parishes, who might be the organs for addressing and advising, and from whom might emanate orders and dispositions, for thereby ideas might be strengthened. The proof of this is the organisation of delegates in Beyrout, Zahleh, Deir-el Kamar, Kesrawan, and other places, as is well known. The principal of these assemblies was the assembly at Beyrout.

A fifth requisite was the creation of "chiefs of the young men," whom these latter might obey; for by this means it became easier for them to carry their plans into execution. The proof of this is what took place, and was publicly known in respect to the appointment of "chiefs of the young

men" in every village and plantation, even in the towns, and, what is more still, in the very centre of Government, in Beyrout itself.

The sixth was the general armament of the people of the sect, so that their strength might be augmented. The proof of their efforts to gain this point consists in what was seen as to the distribution of great quantities of arms from Beyrout to every place. This distribution was effected principally by means of the Khawarina [priests?] people. When inquiry was made as to the necessity for this measure, and as to payment for the arms, since it occurred in a season of distress, when most of them were in want of necessary food, let alone the means of paying for these arms in large quantities, the answer was given that they were for their own protection, and, according to the tenor of the bills of exchange, the time of payment was fixed for a future date. It afterwards became evident that these bills of exchange were a mere feint, and that the arms were from the "company" formed at Beyrout, for conducting the affairs of the rising.

For the space of about six months, also, Bishop Tubia occupied himself in the formation of a Christian Committee at Antalias; and, according to what transpired, his chief design, in the formation of this committee, was the enrolment of young men in every place, and to learn who among them was unarmed, so that arms might be furnished to them. When he found that he could not carry out this design, he took other steps to arrive at the desired knowledge by means of the Khawarina [priests?] people.

Another measure was the instruction of the young men in military exercises. The proof that they exerted themselves to accomplish this object consists in what was seen as to their furnishing drill-masters to the greater number of their villages, to teach the sword exercise, equitation (?), and ball practice, &c.

Another, again, was the getting rid from among themselves of all strangers to their sect, as far as was possible, so as to be safe from a divulgence of their secrets, not to mention their own security of mind. The proof of this is that Mussulmans and people of the Mute'evvila sect (Metuali) are found inhabiting Kesrawan, Tutuh, and their districts; these were urged to take their departure from among them, or to adopt the Maronite creed, since they were few in number. In fact, a considerable number were constrained to embrace the Maronite faith; and those who adhered to their old professions were left in bad circumstances. The exertions of the Bishop Tubia reached that point that he threatened the wife of the Emir Sulayman-el-Metin, and also her two sons, who were Mussulmen, until they entered the Maronite community. He also excited the Emir Mejid, one of the grandsons of the Emir Beshir Shahabi, and promised him that, if he would begin the rising, he would procure his nomination as Kaimakam of the whole Mountain. This was with the view to induce him to become a Christian again, and to make him pleased with the idea of re-entering the Maronite community, for the said Emir had professed Islamism at Constantinople. In fine, they left nothing undone that might facilitate the execution of their designs, and to such a point that, if they were all to be mentioned, the tale would never end.

As soon as it was perceived that the arrangements were completed as they desired, and that the preparations for their designs were all carried out in the best manner, as above detailed, the committee of Beyrout began to write to the districts, and to require the attendance of delegates from each place. The confident bearing of the Christians, also, and their warlike

aspirations, became more and more conspicuous; as did also their pressing invitations to join them, and their promises of immense advantages, such as the distribution of ammunition, the furnishing provisions (or pay), and everything needful for war; so that, in a short space of time, they rose in open revolt and made public manifestations of being in a state of warfare.

They began, in the first place, to take possession of the highways, to rob and ill-treat travellers, and to oppress those newly (established?). All this while the Druses took no heed of what was happening, and their chieftains were using every effort and endeavour to preserve and perpetuate tranquillity, making continued representations to the principal Christians and those known for their wisdom, and exhorting them to remain quiet and peaceable, and to refrain from such acts, warning them at the same time of the evil consequences. The only effect, however, was that these latter became more and more excited and unsettled, until at length, on Friday night, the 15th of Ramazan [6th April, 1860?], while a Druse muleteer, of the village of Ba'Kalin, one of the dependencies of the (fief or) manor of Shuf, was passing the night in the caravanserai named Khanu-'l-Kas'a, and situated in the vicinity of the village of El-Hids, a dependency of the deputy-governorship [Kaimakamate] of the Christians, a posse of Maronites came upon him from the village, and fired upon him as he slept; they then cut him to pieces with their swords, and left him strewn about. Nothing was done in this matter, further than representing the facts to the authorities in the usual manner.

A certain interval elapsed after this, the public excitement increasing from one day to another. Then was seen the commencement of the formation of military corps in the district of Kesrawan, in the neighbourhood of Beyrout and elsewhere.

Again, on the 23rd of the month of Shewwal [14th May, 1860], three Druses, muleteers, of the village of Ma'asir, were returning from the town of Sidon; and on their arriving in the vicinity of the bridge of that place, they were set upon by a rabble of armed men from among the Maronites of Kaytula, a village in the district of Jazin, and various other places, who fired at them, killing two of the number, and leaving the other at the point of death. When news of this event reached the relatives of the slain, great excitement was caused, but instant measures were adopted to calm it. Two days later, however, as several Christians of the district of Jizin were passing beneath the village of Kahtuniyya, situated within the fief of Shuf, they chanced to meet with some Druses, and fire was opened on both sides, three of the Christians losing their lives on the occasion.

Intelligence of this having reached Jazin, the inhabitants became greatly moved, and a party set out, declaring war against the district of Shuf. Upon which steps were taken to lay the matter before the authorities. Orders were immediately given for the especial despatch of an officer and fifty horsemen, who were also accompanied by commissioners on the part of the Ka'im-makam (deputy-governor), from among the members of the Council and others, with a sufficient number of horsemen; so that, with the cognizance of the lord of the manor (Mukata'aji) of those places, Sa'id Bey Janbulat, the necessary measures might be carried into execution under the circumstances.

When this party reached the village of Muklara, the residence of the above-mentioned lord of the manor, it was judged best to send two messen-

gers to treat (?) with Kahluniyya and Kaytula, as was the usual custom. The inhabitants of Kahluniyya accepted the terms proposed (?), but the men of Kaytula flew to arms, and drove away the messengers in a most insolent manner, acting under the advice of Abu Semra, "chief of the young men" of the district.

The excitement in this part of the country then rose to an extreme pitch, and every symbol declaratory of war was displayed. All kinds of endeavours were made to counsel moderation to them, and to set them right; but their arrogance was only increased thereby.

The delegate of the Christians of Hazub (or Kharub), too, named Dahir Nasif, rose up in arms declaring war, and a body of the Christians of that district collected about him in the village of Burjeyn, where he resided. On Monday, the first of the month of Zi-l-ki'da (21st May, 1860), he met with a Mussulman of his village, assailed him with his arms, and wounded him. And on the same day a large party of horsemen sallied forth from the village of Zahleh, proceeding to the plain of Bekaa, where they commenced molesting the cattle and the men of the Druses that they found in those quarters. This party established themselves in the village of Kabr-Elyas, situated at the foot of the Mountain. On the same day another party, inhabitants of Kesrawan, made incursion as far as the Dog river (Nehru-l-Kelb), and there commenced the formation of a corps, under the command of Tanoss Shahin.

On Saturday, the sixth of the month of Zi-l-ki'da (26th May), some individual Druses of the village of Beshamun were going to find some of their relatives who were among the irrigators working on the river of Beyrout. When they had arrived in the neighbourhood of the kitchen-garden of the oil-presser, situated on the bank of the river, they were met by the Christians assembled there, who demanded their arms. They refused to give them up; but those latter continued to press them until they entered a house there. This was surrounded, and the menace was held out that unless they gave up their arms, the house should be burnt down over them. Several of them then gave in, but others threw themselves into the outer premises out of the windows (?). Cavasses (?) were sent after these, who came up with them in the direction of the city. At this juncture they were met by Eyyub, of Tripoli, one of the committee of delegates at Beyrout, and author of this plot. With him was an armed band, who immediately commenced firing on them, killing one, and wounding a second badly, so that he died in consequence.

The day following, a Maronite of Deir-el-Kamar was proceeding on the road of the above-mentioned place, and had reached the shop of 'Aynab, when he was met by some relatives of those killed in the way above recited. They fired at him and killed him; and when the intelligence reached Deir-el-Kamar, it produced great excitement among the inhabitants, and they commenced a perquisition among the Druses there present, and found a Druse man from Kafr-Fakud, whom they shot, and he died.

On the next day, Sunday [27th May], by reason of what had happened at the deir (convent), great excitement occurred in the manor of Shahar, and the whole Maronite population thereof assembled in the village of Mu'allaka, and displayed the emblems of war.

On the morrow, Monday [28th May], a full court of employés, the members of the provincial council, and the notables of the city, was held at

Beyrout, in the presence of his Excellency the Governor of the province, and the Bishop Tubia was sent for. A debate was held as to what should be done to abate the existing disturbances, and to disperse the gatherings of the Christians, which had extended up to the boundaries of Beyrout, and to cause them to depart to their homes. The resolution was taken to put in motion, with all despatch, the troops of the imperial forces, who were, accordingly, moved out that very day to the lands of Hazimiyya; also, that confidential persons on the part of his said Excellency, and the dean or archdeacon (*vakil*) of the said bishop, should be sent to Tanoss Shahin, to exhort him to withdraw from what he had undertaken, and to disperse the band collected about him; and although the bishop made an appeal to notify his disapproval of this arrangement, and declared he could do nothing in the matter, it was still thought the best that could be done; so he became satisfied, and sent his dean with the confidential persons, who went together to Tanoss. But nothing came of this, excepting that in the evening of that same day a large body of men from that army entered the village of Ba'bada, in the confines of the village of Shuweifat, the place of residence of the Druse Kaimakam, whence, to the manor of Kesrawan, is a distance of about five hours' journey. All the Christians of the district assembled there also.

The Kaimakam (deputy-governor) immediately sent in a report to the authorities and to the consuls his well-wishers (?). His Excellency the Governor gave orders that confidential persons should be sent to advise the chiefs present in the said village, and to turn away that army from prosecuting its designs. They had peremptory instructions to disband it. The answer was, that of a certainty they would complete that which they had undertaken in point of smiting the Druses; and that if the regular troops should interfere, they would fight them also. Not satisfied with this, the Kaimakam again sent confidential persons to the said chiefs to ask for the dispersion of the assemblage, and the dismissal of every one to his home, and the withdrawal from this enterprise, the cause of universal trouble. As a last argument, the reply was that they had opened the banners of war, and there was no way left to close them again.

On the same day, a large body of the Maronites of Jerur Kesrawan and Kati' advanced upon the lands of the meadows which are in the advanced parts of the manor of Metu; and on the next day, Tuesday [29th May], the Khuri (priest?) of Busheriyya, one of the arable districts of Beyrout, went out with a large assembly, having in his hand a flag of war, and advanced with them in the intent of attacking the Druses of Beyt-Meri, situated in the direction of the Meten. When they were nigh upon entering the village, Ibrahim Agha (an officer of the hired troops, stationed there by the provincial authorities to prevent the causes, among the inhabitants, on the part of daring people, of what had happened in former years), and the elders (or an old woman) of the Druses of the village, went to the Emir Yusuf-Ali-Ebu'l-Lam', the lord of the manor, and begged him to send back this khuri and his band, and to prevent warfare. The Emir did his best to attain those results; but, seeing that he had no power over them, he told the Druses to evacuate the village. They forsook their homes immediately, so as to avoid all cause (for trouble), and betook themselves in the direction of the village of the Druses. When they arrived outside the village, they saw this band enter it and commence burning the houses thereof. They suddenly set out in pursuit of them, intending to destroy

them also. Then they were forced to defend their lives, and those dependent on them, so that a combat took place between the two parties, and, in spite of the small number of the villagers, and the superiority of the Christians in that respect, it did not take long before these latter were routed and put to flight, so that the Druses returned home.

On the same day, the band of Zahleh, stationed in the village of Kabr-Elyas, went out into the mountain with the view of finding Ali Bey El-'Amad, who resided there in the village of 'Ayn-Dara, for the protection of the Damascus road, as he was commissioned to do. When they approached the entrance to that village with their bands, which amounted to about 3,000 fighting men, the said Ali Bey went out to drive them away, attended by his servants and the people of the village, who were under 200 fighting men in number. A battle took place between the two in the Debur valley, which lies near the village. The noise of the combat reaching to the adjacent districts, successive arrivals of brave men brought him succour, and the struggle was prolonged until the band from Zahleh was routed and returned to the caravanserai Khan Morad, situated near to the village of Kabr-Elyas, where it took up its quarters. The battle was then renewed; they were surrounded by the men, and the fight pressed sore upon them. It took but a short time to rout them again, when they fled in confusion to the various districts of Zahleh. The number of Druses engaged in the whole of this affair did not, however, amount to 1,000 fighting men; and the said 'Ali Bey El 'Amad was wounded in the combat, while the Sheykh Hamud 'Abdu-'l-Melik was slain therein, although he had come solely to make inquiries and to prevent hostilities, and was unarmed, being generally known as one of the chief wishers for peace.

On the above-mentioned day, a band of Christians went forth from Deir-el-Kamar to go to the lower 'Urkub. On nearing the village of Kafr-Nabrakh, the residence of Mulham Bey El-'Amad, the Bey went forth to repel them, and a combat ensued, when they were beaten, and had to turn back again.

On the next day, Wednesday [30th May], the bands of Ba'abda went forth to attack the manor of Upper Gharb. And as soon as news of this expedition reached his Excellency the Governor of the province, he sent his interpreter to them, with several military officers, to advise them to desist from their design, and to caution them as to the consequences of this attack. But they would not listen to this, and proceeded to the place they had in view. And when they entered the nearest parts of the Gharb, and began to set fire to several places therein, the men of the Gharb went out against them, defeated them, and put them to flight; neither did they give up the pursuit until his Excellency the said Governor restrained them, and put a stop to the combat.

On this day, a body of Maronites, collected together in the Metin from Zahleh and other places, advanced against the Druse villages situated in the vicinity of the Christian districts, which villages had already been abandoned by the inhabitants. They set fire to the villages of Karna'il and Kafr-Selwan, with others, and then advanced against the remaining Druse quarters. Upon this, the Druse inhabitants went forth to repel them, when a battle ensued, which lasted a long while, until the Christians were driven back in confusion to their own districts.

On the same day a fight took place in the village of Hamana, and, after a fierce siege, the Christians were routed there also. Again, on the same

date, at about midnight, many shots were heard in various directions in the plain of the Shuwayfat from all the guardians placed towards the west of the village, in the direction of the band of the Muallaka; and, as is usual when such things occur on the part of the guardians, it was understood as a signal of the arrival of a band to attack the place. For this reason, the inhabitants began to take measures of precaution, and to prepare to meet the approaching band. Some few went out to obtain information in the direction of the guardians, and found a multitude of men under arms, and one of the guardians killed. And when they advanced towards them, they fired at them, and moved on towards them; so that they were under the necessity to return the fire of the advancing party. After fighting for a certain while, they were defeated, and left the road leading to the village.

The next day, Thursday [31st May], the bands of Christians who were assembled in Beyt Meri, advanced to attack the Druses of the village of 'Ibadiyya, and the bands assembled in Salima, 'Ubaniyya, Ba'badat, and Bekfiya, to attack the Druses of the village of Ras. When each of the bodies had reached the vicinity of the place it was to attack, the inhabitants came out to repel them, and fighting went on for the space of eight hours, until the Christians cleared away and returned in disorder.

On the day following, Friday [1st June], as a number of Druses from Manasif were reaping a field belonging to them, near to Deir-el-Kamar, a party of Christians from Deir-el-Kamar went out to attack them, and fired at them; this led to a fight.

Another party went out to attack the Druses of the two villages Kafr-hamal and Kafr-katra, both belonging to the manor of Manasif; a battle ensued, and the noise was heard in the neighbouring districts. People flocked in promiscuously at the sound, to give succour; and when they had become numerous, the Christians began to set fire to the houses of the Druses, in the Deir-el-Kamar. Upon this the fighting became serious, and attacks were mutually made on both sides; but the Christians were beaten, and took refuge in the village, pursued by the Druses until they had occupied it; and they penetrated it in various places until nightfall, when certain of the leading men came forward and drew them away from fighting; upon which, each of them went away home.

The same day a party of Christians started from Jizin to attack the Druses of the village of Niha. The inhabitants went out to meet them, a fight ensued, and fresh combatants kept coming up to the assistance of both parties. The combat waxed fiercer and fiercer, until the result declared in the rout of the Christians in the whole of those districts.

On the same day again, Yusuf, the bleacher, delegate of the Christians of the district of Tuffah, went out with a band he had collected in the village of Derbu-'s-Sin, to attack Kasim El-Yusuf, who was on the river of the bridge of Sidon, keeping guard over the possessions of Sa'id Bey Janbulat, situate in that direction. When we neared the spot, they met and fought, when the bleacher and his party were discomfited.

On Monday, the 17th of the same month (4th June, 15th Zi-'l-Ka'da), the bands of Zahleh, stationed at Humma-Kafr-Selwan, attacked the Druses of the village of Fatugha; and, as it chanced that his Excellency the great Governor of the province had set out on the road to Damascus to prevent a gathering which he had heard there was a particular intention of forming, his Excellency prohibited any succour being sent to the Druses, and sent the most peremptory orders to their chiefs in the vicinity to prevent any

relief from being sent to them; but, as the village of Falugha is near the village of Karna'il, a party of Druses resident there had already set out to assist before the orders arrived, so the fight waxed hot, and the Christians retired defeated. His Excellency immediately sent some men of note among the Druses to turn them back, and to put out the flames of this misadventure.

After that, the Druses had arrived in the neighbourhood of Zahleh, and, on Tuesday, the 24th of the month (12th June), took place the arrival of the levies of the Hawran and of the valley of Tim and their environs, in the Bekâa; for, so soon as the news was received in those quarters that the Maronites of the Druse Mountain, with their co-operators belonging to other sects, had risen openly to carry out what they designed in respect of extirpating all traces of the Druse nation from the Druse Mountain, and of establishing their own supremacy there, and that they had begun to form bands and to attack the Druses, their zeal for their kinsmen was kindled, and a large body of them came forward to ascertain the truth and to assist.

The next day, Wednesday (13th June), as a small party, established at Ber-Eliyas (Kabr-Elyas?), about an hour and a-half's journey from Zahleh, were attacked by the horsemen of Zahla, a combat ensued between them, and the flames of war raged until the horsemen of Zahleh were worsted and retired into the village.

Then, as had been the case from the beginning, the utmost endeavours were used to prevent the least thing from happening, and to take away all cause of (trouble), and to bring about the return of tranquillity; and, since the presence of those levies in the places mentioned was a cause of disquiet, instant efforts were made by the Kaimakam to restrain the said army, and cause them to return home quietly. He sent for Sheik Mahmud El-'Id, one of the chief priests [or elders] of the Mountain, whose love of peace and security was well known, and commissioned him to go and advise them, and set them right, employing all possible means to effect that purpose. He went to them, and, after much discussion, he received from their sheikhs and chieftains the promise to undertake nothing for the space of three days, founded upon the consideration that every pains was being taken to effect a reconciliation between the two nations; that delay expired without the accomplishment of this purpose, and then a fresh term of four days was arranged with them.

But, on Monday, the 29th of the month, on which this second delay was arranged, as some Druse horsemen were picketed (?) in the lands of Sa'd-Na'il, at about an hour's distance from Zahleh, a body of Zahleh horsemen fell upon them, and a battle was begun. The remaining bodies of Druses present thereabouts gathered by degrees to the noise of the combat; fresh parties issued from Zahleh, and the flames of war raged outside of the village between them. Before very long, the bands of Zahleh retreated to the village, and intrenched themselves there. The parties of Druses surrounded it, attacked it, and entered it by storm, sword in hand. Those who were therein fled in disorder to the Mountain.

On Wednesday (20th June) the first of Zi'l-hijja, news spread over most districts of the Mountain that fighting had occurred at Deir-el-Kamar, and that it was undergoing a siege. Then men began to flock there from places in the vicinity. When the more advanced parties of these gatherings arrived there, and shots began to be fired from the houses, a certain number of these Druses were struck. Then it was they attacked the place,

and took possession of the whole town, killing a large number of those Christians whom they found therein.

When his Excellency the Governor of the province heard of this, he instantly mounted his horse, and, taking with him a part of the regular and of the hired troops, set out in haste for the village. On arriving there, he ordered the fighting to be stopped, and the evacuation of the place by the Druses, who were there. He then received information that affairs were in a critical state in the city and its environs, upon which he returned thitherwards, and, after giving the necessary directions and orders, he again went out to the camp of the regular troops.

His Excellency had already given orders for the two Kaimakams of the Mountain to come into Beyrout, with as many as were necessary of the lords of manors, members of local councils, and persons of distinction among the inhabitants, in order to deliberate upon what might be necessary to be done in the actual condition of affairs, so as to change this into a state of peace and calm.

In pursuance of that mandate, the two Kaimakams, and the others, came in, and, after lengthened discussions between the two parties upon the several questions above mentioned, the mutual consent and agreement of both parties was given, and peace was made as occurred between the two races after the war of '61; which is, that each agrees to give and forget the past (to let bygones be bygones), to bring no actions, and raise no claims either now or in future, from the time when these troubles broke out into general warfare until the present time; and hereupon binding contracts were written.

On the 23rd September Lord Dufferin sent to Lord J. Russell a copy of a narrative he requested Mr. Robson to draw up of the circumstances under which the massacres of Damascus have occurred. Mr. Robson was an Irish Presbyterian missionary. He was a person of sober judgment and great intelligence. He has been a resident at Damascus for eighteen years; he spoke Arabic perfectly; and was naturally in a position to speak with very considerable authority on everything connected with the country. His narrative, combined with that of Mr. Graham's, will form a trustworthy and connected history of the deplorable events which have deluged this province with human blood.

MEMORANDUM.

From the commencement of the war between the Christians and the Druses in Lebanon, the Christians of Damascus were in the greatest alarm, for their Moslem fellow-citizens indulged constantly in very threatening and very insulting language towards them. Whenever they went into the bazaars or streets in the Moslem quarter of the city, men and boys applied offensive and degrading epithets to them and their religion, cursed them, and often spoke of a rising against them. The repeated successes of the Druses increased the insolence of the one party and the terror of the other. The murders of the Christians in Kinakir, known in the city on the 11th of June; the massacres in Hasbeya and Rasheya; the outrages committed by the Moslems and Druses in villages in every direction in the surrounding country, and the sight of the wretched fugitives who flocked to the city for safety and food, to the number of 5,000 or 6,000, excited and emboldened the Moslems, and intensified the terrors of the Christians.

The impression began to prevail among all sects and classes that the Government itself desired and intended the destruction of the Christians. They were retained in the city only by the impossibility of escaping to any safe place. The fall of Zahleh, and the massacre in Deir-el-Kamar, added to the exultation of the Moslems, and rendered the panic of the Christians extreme and universal.

During all this time the Moslems became more assuming, insolent, and threatening; the insults heaped on the Christians more numerous, shameful, and alarming; while the Christians became more terrified, subdued, and cringing. They seemed to yield up at once all the rights and liberties which they had gained during the last twenty-seven years. They did not venture to ride any animal in the city; they ceased to resent any insult, or complain of any injury; they abstained from demanding payment of debts or enforcing claims against Moslems; they submitted in silence to impositions, and sometimes to assaults. To avoid the abuse to which they were exposed they ceased to frequent the cafés, the walks in the gardens, and other places of public resort, and almost abandoned their shops and business in the city. Few of them hoped that the approaching feast of the Kurban Beiram would pass without an attack on their quarter; and during the four days of the feast they confined themselves almost entirely to their houses and their own quarter.

The festival began on the 29th of June. On that day troops were stationed in the Christian quarter, and gave some encouragement to them. But they knew that the Imperial troops had been present at all the massacres of their brethren in the mountains, and that some of the officers and many of the men sent to their quarter had been themselves at those of Hasbeya and Rasheya; and the more they talked of these circumstances and reflected on them, the greater became their anxiety and their distrust of the soldiers.

The Beiram passed over, and they breathed a little more freely; but as the bearing of the Moslems did not become less insolent and hostile, and as Christians and Christianity were as much insulted as before, great anxiety and terror were still felt.

However, by Monday, 9th July, as nothing serious had happened in the city, and as there had been no further massacres elsewhere, the Christians had generally persuaded themselves that the danger which had distressed and terrified them so much and so long was nearly over.

It appears that some Moslems took pains to reassure them. On the previous evening, the now infamous Mustafa Bey-el-Hawâsaly called on several of the principal Christians to persuade them that there was no longer any reason to fear, and that they might go to sleep with their doors open, and he would guarantee their perfect safety. On the 9th July, therefore, the poor Christians congratulated one another that they had escaped, and they generally returned, after a long intermission, to their usual occupations. The Government clerks went to the seraglio; the shopkeepers resumed their business; the tradesmen went to their work; the children were sent to school.

On that day the Pasha ordered two young Moslems to be put in irons for insulting Christians, and about two o'clock P.M. they were sent to sweep the streets. Immediately, as if this had been a preconcerted signal, the people in the principal bazaars began to shut their shops, call on the religion of Mahommed, curse infidels, excite one another to arm and attack

the Christians, and run together to the Christian quarter. Almost at the same moment the mob began to collect, arm, and run from the streets adjacent to the Christian quarter, the Shagur, a suburb on the south of the city, the Medân, a large suburb on the south-west, and a mile and a half to two miles from the Christian quarter, and from Salehiyeh, a large suburban village two miles off. They encouraged and excited one another by calling on their religion and Prophet, by imprecations on the infidels, and by crying, "Arm, arm! kill, plunder, burn; the time of slaughter has come, the sun of slaughter has arisen!" and by similar expressions.

The women also stimulated the men by their cries and curses, and their prayers for success and victory. At first they were afraid of the troops, and avoided the places where they were stationed, but they soon found that they had nothing to fear from them. The Bashi-Bozouks of Salim, Agha-el-Muhaine, Mustafa Bey-el-Hawâsaly, and others, the Kurdish Irregulars under Muhammed Said Agha, and the Zaptiehs or police, were among the earliest and the most active in the work of murder and plunder. Many of the Bashi-Bozouks, as those under Hawâsaly, had been specially enrolled to preserve the peace of the city during the excitement. The people of the city were gradually joined during Monday evening and Tuesday by Druses from the Medân and from Jermana, a Druse village two miles from the city, and by Moslem peasants from several of the surrounding villages. But no Druse chief nor any regular Druse force from a distance took part in the affair.

The mob, with the exception of the Bashi-Bozouks, were very ill armed. Only a few had muskets, some had pistols, some had swords, a great number had battle-axes or daggers, but the great majority had only clubs or sticks. Perhaps not more than one in twenty had a gun, and many of the guns were of little value.

If the Bashi-Bozouks and Zaptiehs had done their duty the insurrection would have been put down at once; if they had only abstained from interfering no great effort would have been necessary to quell the mob. As it was, the troops, if they had acted with any vigour, would probably have encountered little opposition even from the Bashi-Bozouks.

The Christians made no defence. It is said that a Greek fired some shots on the mob, and that shots were fired from two houses by natives. With these exceptions, no resistance was offered to the murderers. The Christians were almost without arms. A few young men had fowling-pieces, and some few had pistols, but there was perhaps not a sword or axe among them.

The Russian consulate, in the centre of the Christian quarter, was one of the first houses attacked, plundered, and set on fire. His dragoman was killed. Two of his servants escaped by hiding in a cellar, where, though the house was burned over them, they remained four days without food or drink. Among the houses first broken into were those of the Dutch and Belgian vice-consul, the United States' vice-consul, and Mr. Frazier, an American missionary. The first of these had escaped with his family before the house was attacked. Mr. Frazier and his family had gone from the city before the outbreak. The American vice-consul was very severely wounded, and escaped with great difficulty. His two eldest sons were not in the house; his whole family were scattered, and it was several days before they were reunited. The houses of the richer Christians were all early assaulted; the mob being attracted by the prospect

of rich plunder. Then the houses adjoining them were attacked, and so the plundering, murder, conflagration and ruin spread more and more. The Greek church and patriarchate afforded plunder of great value in church ornament and plate, the rich dresses of the clergy, the patriarch's plate, and the money in the treasury.

It was guarded by soldiers on the day of the outbreak till after sunset, when it was broken into, rifled, and burned, and a large number of persons were murdered in it.

The course of proceeding was generally the same. The mob broke the door of the house with axes, rushed in, sought first for the men, murdered any they could find with clubs, sticks, axes, daggers, swords, and using sometimes fire-arms also. Then they plundered the house of furniture, clothes, stores of food, the materials of trades, and everything in it, searching carefully for money or valuables which might be concealed, and threatening and terrifying the women and children to make them tell where the men were, and if anything was hidden. They searched the women lest they might have ornaments or money concealed in their clothes, and they generally took away any articles of dress of any value which the women or children happened to have on. They very generally seized the young girls and the younger women in the house, and often took them off and kept them for a time. Finally, the house was set on fire.

The better armed, the more respectable, and the more bold and violent of the murderers, generally appropriated to themselves the more valuable articles in the house, and then left it for another. But they were followed by successive parties of the lower rabble, the unarmed, the poor, the weak, the women, and even children, and they stripped the house of all that remained. Not only the contents of the house, but doors, windows, window-shutters, and the panelling on the walls, were carried off. Even firewood, charcoal, the marble of the floors, and the timber of the roofs, were in many cases taken away. Besides what men, women, and children carried away, camels, horses, mules, and donkeys were employed to remove plunder.

At the moment of the outbreak, a great number of merchants, shopkeepers, Government clerks, the clerks of the Moslem merchants, and some tradesmen, as stone-cutters and masons, were at their business in the Moslem part of the city. When the mob began to collect, a part of these attempted to reach their houses, some with a feeble hope of assisting their families, and some because they knew of no other place of safety: some succeeded in getting to their homes, and some were killed in the streets. Another part fled to the English, French, and Prussian Consulates, to the house of the Emir Abd-el-Kader, or to the houses of Moslem partners or acquaintances, often, in their terror and despair, forcing themselves into houses where they were little welcome. Others concealed themselves in the khans in which or near to which they happened to be at the moment, and they were generally conducted to the old citadel next day by the troops. Had all the men been in the Christian quarter and in their own houses, as they were during the Beiram, the slaughter of the Christians would have been greater than it was, perhaps much greater.

Of the men who were in the houses or in the Christian quarter some fled to the churches, to the Austrian Consulate, or to the houses of their richer neighbours; but none of these places afforded safety. Many hid in closets, necessaries, or cellars, or on the roofs of the houses, and they were

almost all discovered and most of them murdered. A number of them went down into the wells, and though a deep and narrow well was a difficult, unpleasant, and dangerous hiding-place, nearly all those who went down into them were saved, and were taken out after remaining three, four, or five days, without food, and enduring all the inconveniences of such a retreat. A few escaped by passing over the roofs from house to house, and hiding at last among the ruins of houses already plundered and burned. A few got out of the city, but of these the peasants afterwards killed some and compelled others to become Moslems. Every possible expedient for concealment or flight was adopted. A few disguised themselves as women, but they were generally detected. A few also took off their outer clothes, assumed the appearance of rioters, and went off carrying furniture as if they were plunderers. Some fled from one Moslem house to another by day and by night, and though many perished in doing so, a good many finally reached a place of safety. In such perplexity, terror, and danger, and amid such scenes of plunder, outrage, murder, and fire, did those saved make their escape. To the fears which every one had for himself was added anxiety about the fate of his family and friends. Of the 2000 families of Damascenes involved in the massacre, hardly one family escaped all together and reached a place of safety without being separated. Generally one member of the family did not know what had happened to the others, and days passed before the survivors all met again.

From about two o'clock p.m. on the 9th of July, the plundering and burning of houses, the murders, and the outrages committed on women, went on incessantly till about two hours after sunset. During most of that time several thousands of rioters were actively engaged. The most valuable part of the plunder was secured, and the murders were very numerous. Most of the mob retired from the Christian quarter during the night, but many remained, and the work of destruction never entirely ceased. The fire was by that time extensively spread, and several hundred houses must have been in flames. At daylight next morning the Moslems returned to the Christian quarter in as great numbers as on the previous afternoon, and the plundering, burning, and murder went on throughout the day, diminishing, however, towards the evening, because little remained to be attacked. On this day almost all the shops of the Christians in the principal bazaars were broken open and plundered. By sunset there was nothing left to the Christians but the stones and fragments of the timber of burning houses, and a few houses and rooms which the flames had not yet reached, and there remained no Christians in the quarter except those who were effectually concealed in the wells or amid the ruins of the houses.

On Wednesday morning, a false and very improbable report was spread, that some Christians had fired from a Moslem's house on Moslems in the street, and killed two of them. The object of this report was soon evident from what followed. A mob of Moslems from Salehiyeh, brought, it is said, by Sheik Abdullah-el-Haleby, under pretence of putting out the fire, commenced a new and very horrid work, in which others soon joined them. They went round the different quarters in which Christians had taken refuge, demanded that they should be given up, and either killed them as soon as they appeared in the street, and dragged their bodies to the Christian quarter, or first conducted them alive to the ruins, and killed

them there. The number massacred in this brutal and shocking way, after their property and houses were destroyed, and after that they had hoped that the bitterness of death was passed, it is impossible to ascertain with any exactness, unless the Government were to institute a *bonâ fide* and rigid investigation in the districts of the city which were the scenes of these horrible murders. But it is certain that several hundreds of those who vainly hoped that they had found a refuge, perished on that day, and that very few of those in private houses escaped, except such as consented to embrace Mahometanism.

After that day, Wednesday, the 11th July, there were only a few murders, because no Christians remained within reach of the murderers. Doors, timber, and marble were carried off from the ruins, but not to any great extent. The fire continued till the beginning of the following week, when it almost ceased for want of materials, though for some ten days longer it was partially maintained by setting on fire any portions of houses which here and there remained. The houses in Damascus, and especially the poor houses, owing to the way in which they are built, do not readily burn. Accidental fires are very rare, and almost all originate in the establishments of cooks or bakers—seldom in private houses. As there was a perfect calm during the massacre, the fire would have gone out of itself without spreading far, if it had not been constantly kept up by setting fire to additional houses.

The work of the plunderers was complete. Nothing to be found in the Christian quarter was left if it seemed worth carrying away. Many had concealed some of their more valuable effects under the floors or in secret recesses, closets, presses, or holes in the wall, or by throwing them into wells; most of what was thrown into wells was preserved, but almost everything else was discovered and taken away. The shops in the bazaars were plundered, but the khans were not attacked, and the property which Christians had in them was not disturbed. The consulates of England, France, and Prussia, owing to their situation in the Moslem quarter, to their being guarded, and to other special circumstances, were not plundered. Besides these, a house in the Moslem quarter in which an Englishman lived, escaped.

About 1500 houses were robbed; one private and unguarded house was left untouched. Some 200 houses adjacent to or among Moslem houses were plundered and greatly injured, but not burned. All the rest of the quarter, to the number of 1200 or 1300 houses, with all the churches, schools, convents, workshops, and khans, is now heaps of ruins. In many places, in pulling down walls and cutting down ornamental trees, there are traces of laborious efforts to destroy even what the fire spared. The lowest and perhaps the most accurate estimate of the loss of property is between 300,000 and 400,000 purses, equivalent to 1,250,000*l.* to 1,500,000*l.* To this might well be added the loss resulting from the compulsory idleness of the whole Christian population while the settlement of affairs is pending.

The number of persons murdered will never be exactly ascertained. Of hundreds, it is only known that they disappeared. The survivors are so scattered, and so occupied with other cares and anxieties, that it would be almost impossible to make an accurate list of the missing. An estimate may be made of the number of males in Damascus on the day of the insurrection, and of the probable proportion which the murdered bore to the survivors. The number of Christian males resident in the city were

about 8000 to 9000, and of refugees from the surrounding country from 2000 to 3000. Thus the whole number of males would be between 10,000 and 12,000, and of this one-third may be deducted for children under fourteen years of age. Of the remaining 7500 to 8000, probably more than a third, or about 3000, were murdered. This is the lowest estimate yet given, but it is perhaps within a few hundreds of the truth.

But it is difficult to speak with confidence, for there was great diversity in the fate of families and sects. The proportion of murders was greater among the members of the Greek Church than among those of any other sect, for their houses were exposed to the first attack of the mob. Many families did not lose a member; many lost every adult male. In the house next to the Russian consulate on the north, the father and his three sons were murdered, the women were abused, and the house was, as usual, plundered and burned. Four brothers who lived together abandoned their house before it was attacked, and were separated in the streets; the two elder were murdered, the two younger escaped. Two men lived in one house; one went down into the well and was saved, the other hid on the roof, and was killed. In another house, where four unmarried working men lived, two of them were killed, and the other two were badly wounded and left for dead. In the Protestant church, four men and several women took refuge. One of the men was disguised as a woman, and escaped from the church, but was wounded in the street; the other three concealed themselves, but were discovered, and two of them were killed. Some thirty men were murdered in the house of a Greek priest. In the house of a working man, who was in Beyrout at the time, eleven of his neighbours were killed in the presence of his wife. In the premises of the Greek church and patriarchate there were several hundred refugees from Rasheya, and many Christians from the adjoining houses. The mob broke in after sunset of the first day of the insurrection, and the slaughter, both of citizens and strangers, was very great. There was a large number of the refugees in houses connected with the Armenian convent, and there also a great number were murdered. In the streets and houses near the house of Mustafa Bey-el-Hawasaly, a great many dead bodies were left. The Franciscan monks were all killed. The Lazarists were saved by the Emir Abd-el-Kader. About thirty ministers of religion, including the Franciscan and a Protestant missionary, were killed. Of the native priests only five or six escaped.

It was not out of pity that the murderers spared the children. Had it been so, they would, probably, not have butchered old, feeble men as helpless as children. It is a doctrine of Mahometanism, founded on a saying of the Prophet, and held by all Sunnites, that every child is from birth a believer in Islam, the true religion, and that unbelieving parents make it, as it grows up, a Jew, or a Christian, or an idolater, as the case may be. Children, therefore, being Moslems, it is unlawful to kill them; but it was doubtless intended to take possession of them and bring them up as Moslems. Several children who have been restored to their parents were circumcised.

Unlike the Druses, who generally respected the women, the Mahometans of Damascus acted most brutally towards them. The number of young girls, and of married women and mothers, abused by them, was, perhaps, greater than that of the men murdered. A great number were taken to houses in the town, or to the villages, and even to remote villages, and were

kept, some for days and some for weeks, before they were allowed to return to their families. There was great diversity in the treatment to which those taken away were subjected.

Hundreds professed Mahometanism, during the massacre, in the hope of saving their lives; but hardly any of them were spared by the mob. Many, however, of those who found a precarious refuge in the houses of Moslems, and became Mahometans to avoid being killed or delivered up to the mob, were spared. Most of these involuntary apostates were only inspired with a greater dread and abhorrence of the persecutors and their religion, and took the first opportunity of leaving Damascus to seek a place where they might venture to abjure their forced conversion.

Only a very few remain in the city and seem disposed to adhere to their new profession. In the villages of the surrounding country, also, a very considerable number have been forced to abjure Christianity and embrace Mahometanism.

It is manifest that the design of the rioters was to exterminate the adult male population, take possession of the women and compel them to apostatize, bring up the children as Mahometans, and destroy the Christian quarter utterly and for ever.

The mob believed that all this was sanctioned by the views of the officers of Government, the chief men of the city, and the heads of religion, and that it was permitted, if not required, by their religion. As long as Jews and Christians submit to the Moslem authorities, and pay their taxes, they are entitled to protection for their lives, their women and children, and their property, even if they resist or rebel against their sovereign. Recent authorities teach that a Frank, even if not submitting to the authority of the Moslem sovereign, nor paying the taxes imposed on infidels, yet, if allowed to live peaceably among Moslems for a time, becomes thereby virtually entitled to protection; and it is unlawful and contrary to the Mahometan religion to kill him, or seize his property, or take away his wife or children. Yet, in opposition to these principles, the Mahometans of Damascus had come to believe that the Christians, by taking advantage of the privileges and liberties conceded to them during the last thirty years, had placed them in a state of disobedience and rebellion, and forfeited their right to security and protection; and that it was, therefore, lawful to kill and rob them, and carry off their women and children.

This belief that what they did was according to their law and religion, and agreeable to the wishes of their superiors, palliates, so far, the monstrous crimes of the mob, but casts a weightier responsibility and guilt on the influential teachers and guides who disseminated such ideas among the common people, and on the Government, which did nothing to correct the erroneous impressions as to its views and designs, which were so widely circulated and believed.

The Emir Abd-el-Kader did his utmost, from the commencement of the excitement, to inculcate right views; and it is said that one sheik earnestly adopted a similar course. But it is not known that the mufti, or Sheik Abdullah-el-Haleby, the most venerated of the ulema, or any others of that body, or of the influential people, assisted them. Rumour ascribes to them a very different course of conduct.

On the day of the outbreak, Colonel Ali Bey was in command of the troops in the Christian quarter, and actually refused to act against the mob. Another officer, Colonel Salih Ziky, without orders, made some of the

troops fire on the rioters, and he also fired a gun, once or oftener. One or two persons were killed, and some wounded. When the troops fired, the mob fell back, and not the slightest symptom of resistance to the troops was shown.

This partial and feeble effort soon ceased. After sunset, the troops were collected in one place, and remained till one or two o'clock on Tuesday morning, when they marched to the barracks. Not a sentinel was left in the Christian quarter. On subsequent days, a few of the troops were employed to conduct some Christians from khans and other hiding-places to the citadel.

On the 16th October, 1860, Sir M. Montefiore sent to Lord J. Russell copy of a letter from the heads of the Jewish community at Damascus. There could be no doubt whatever that the Jewish body of that city was guiltless of any participation in the recent outbreak; and Sir Moses entreated Lord John Russell to exercise the powerful influence of her Majesty's Government to protect and save the Jews of Damascus from the perils to which they were so imminently exposed.

The Heads of the Jewish Community at Damascus to Sir M. Montefiore.

Damascus, 7th Tishri, 5621 (September 23, 1860).

To Sir Moses Montefiore, Bart., our benefactor and deliverer, whom may God long preserve, &c., &c.

We commence by praying to God to grant you length of days and many years of prosperity, in which you may find grace in the sight of mighty kings, rulers, and princes, in whose days may Israel be saved, and Judah dwell in safety!

We had the honour to address you a letter in the course of last month, in which we spoke of the enmity of the Christians towards the Jews in Damascus, which has risen up in addition to all former hatred. Now a great, bitter, and intense jealousy fills their hearts, by reason that they have been murdered, plundered, and maltreated, whereas the children of Israel were left uninjured.

Our hearts were then moved by the apprehension lest, by reason of this bitter hatred and jealousy, false accusations should be brought against us. We, therefore, besought you to aid us by obtaining instructions from the English Government to the consuls, generals, and commanders who come to Syria, also from the Turkish Government to his highness Fuad Pasha, that he shall stand by us, and not be ready to receive malicious reports against the Jews, for his Excellency is a just and upright man.

Now, we have to inform you that, since the commencement of the month of Ellul (August), the Christians have been plotting against us and setting up false accusations against us; many have been thrown into prison, and wrongly accused of having participated in the massacre. The Christians are believed in their statements: when they say "so and so killed some one," that person is immediately brought before the tribunal. Testimony of honourable men among the Turks is not received, when they declare that the accused was in their house during the tumult. Even the evidence of Christians is not received when they bear witness to the Jews having been hidden with themselves, and not parted from each other during the whole time of the outbreak. Even should the accuser himself testify anything in favour of an accused Israelite, it is not attended to. A woman

accused a certain Jew, who she thought had killed her husband; she was asked to swear according to her own faith that the accused was the man. She refused to swear, and she asked the Jew to swear by the law of Moses that he had not done it, so that he might go free. But the tribunal would not listen thereto. Even the testimony of our Chief Rabbi has been rejected. The Jews still are in prison, and one has since died in his dungeon from the effects of terror.

Oh, sir! consider, only for a moment, how innocent and pious Jews, without sin, are being thrown into prison with murderers; and how all testimony and proof that they may bring forward will not aid them in their deliverance. We know not, therefore, what is to become of the people of Israel when the Christians see there is no hope for them, but their false accusations are listened to from the judgment-seat; but to the voice of Israel there is none to give ear, or to reply—none to pity or to compassionate.

Those who rose against the Christians and killed them are not judged according to the ordinary laws of the land, nor is evidence taken in the usual manner; but there is established what is termed an "extraordinary tribunal."

Now it appears that it is intended to judge the Jews also by this tribunal, and to condemn them to death upon the mere word of the Christians. This is, indeed, a great and bitter sorrow. How is it possible to compare the condition of the Jews with that of those who rose up against the Christians? Were the Jews themselves during that terrible time not in the greatest fear and danger? Surely there was "but a step betwixt us and death." Most of the Jews hid themselves in the houses of respectable Turks, in cellars, and in caves, and in company with Christians. Is it possible to suppose that one who was in momentary fear for his own life should rise up to kill another? Reason and common sense testify against it. God forbid that such a thought could enter into the mind of her most gracious Majesty the Queen of England, or her Government, for whose prosperity, honour, and glory, we, the congregation of Damascus, have prayed these twenty years.

In this trouble do we lay our supplications before her, beseeching her to have pity and compassion upon poor afflicted Israel in Damascus, who only desire her aid, support, and all-powerful influence, so that the captive Jews may have a fair trial before the ordinary tribunals, in accordance with the well-known custom of the country. For Israel, both young and old, are wholly guiltless in this matter, and free from the crime of shedding blood.

Truly, this is a time of great trouble and distress; for every Israelite dwelling in Damascus is in great dread lest he should be falsely accused; for there is none to say unto the Christians, Why do ye thus? It has been openly declared by some of them that they will grant Israel neither peace nor rest. Even already have they begun to conspire against the best, the most honourable, and esteemed of our community—the well-known Jacob Aboulaffia, and Solomon Farchi, son of Isaac Hyam Farchi (of whose hospitality you partook on your visit to Damascus), a youth fourteen years of age, an only son of his father's house. A certain Christian declared that his father was killed between the two houses of the above-named parties. Were not the Lord on our side, what would become of us? The accused being under French protection, the French and Greek consuls prevented this case being brought before the tribunal,

but had it heard before the two consuls. The Lord brought innocence to light.

And on what was the whole accusation based? If a man was found slain in the highway at the time of the rising of the mob, when all the streets of the Christians, as well as the streets of the Jews and Turks, which are near each other, were filled with the slain, was it in the power of man to prevent a murder being committed before his own house? Would the ruffians have had any regard? Who should tell them not to murder all who stood in their way? Were the Jews, then, secure of their own lives?

Wherefore we beseech you to have compassion upon us, to hear our prayer, and to exert yourself to obtain the influence of the English Government, as well as that of the French and Turkish, with his Highness Fuad Pasha, who is an upright judge; and that instructions may be sent to the English consul in Damascus, so that the Jews may not be confounded with those who rose up in rebellion, and not be judged in the same tribunal.

You are our father! Hasten to help us! As you have been our former deliverer, so save us now, and be the instrument of terminating our endless troubles. Attached are the signatures of the rabbins, the elders, and most worthy of the congregation of Damascus, who anxiously await your answer.

(Signed) Hyam Romano, David Harpi, Menahem Farchi, Jacob Halevi, Jacob Peretz, Raphael Halevi, Isaac Maimon, Aaron Jacob.

Meanwhile, the International Commission had their sittings. They resolved that the occupation of Syria should be prolonged. Her Majesty's Government having made it known that if the Ottoman Government thought the stay of European troops necessary to prevent massacre, it was the duty of the Sultan's Minister for Foreign Affairs to address the five Powers to express the opinion of Turkey as to the safety of the Christians in Syria, and to specify the guarantees she would offer to secure them against a renewal of massacre. On the 24th January, 1861, Lord John Russell wrote to Earl Cowley on the subject as follows:—

The resolution to send troops to Syria was taken upon a sudden emergency, when all Europe was in a state of horror and indignation at the intelligence of the massacres perpetrated in the Lebanon and at Damascus. The object of the five Powers was to prevent a renewal of those massacres, and to show the fanatical tribes of Syria that such outrages upon humanity could not be committed without punishment and reparation. At the same time a commission was appointed, over which an officer of the Sultan was to preside, or has been chosen to preside, to consider and advise upon the means of pacifying Syria. This commission was, in the first instance, to urge the Sultan's officers to punish the guilty and to afford indemnity to their victims. Its further duty, and, as M. Thouvenel says, the most important part of its task was, "to collect and propose to the Powers the elements of the new arrangement which it is proposed to make, with the concurrence of the Ottoman Government, for the administration of the Mountain."

The institution of this commission, however, was a measure entirely separate from the convention for sending foreign troops to Syria, and it had objects of which some were entirely separate and distinct from the despatch of troops.

It appears to her Majesty's Government that it would be a grave error in point of right and in point of policy, if the five Powers were to confound the question of foreign occupation and that of the future administration of the Mountain. It must be recollected that Syria is a province of the Turkish Empire. The Sultan is the Sovereign of that country, and not the five Powers. The first question to ask, therefore, is whether the Sultan has need of foreign troops to maintain tranquillity in Syria. The next question is, how the Sultan proposes to provide for that tranquillity, and prevent a renewal of the massacres of last June.

If the Sultan engages to do this, and if he shows that he has means to do it, the question of the continuance of foreign occupation at once falls to the ground. If the Sultan will not undertake to secure tranquillity, or if he shall not be able to provide means to do it, further questions may arise. But those questions would be of the gravest nature; and until we know the answer of the Sultan, it is not necessary to anticipate them. Suffice it to say that, unless the five Powers and the Sultan agree to renew the convention of last September, that convention will expire, and the lawful occupation of Syria by foreign troops will terminate with it.

The consideration of the measures necessary for the permanent peace of the Mountain is a more difficult question, and, as M. Thouvenel says, it would be difficult to determine the moment when the commissioners may be able to communicate to the Powers the result of their labours.

You will now see the conclusion to which my arguments tend. Her Majesty's Government are quite prepared, either in conference or otherwise, to inquire of the Sultan's Ministers whether the Porte is ready to become responsible for the present tranquillity of Syria, and has provided sufficient means for that purpose. Her Majesty's Government are not prepared to maintain European troops in Syria until means are found of totally preventing for the future those bloody encounters of hostile tribes which have been for ages the scourge of that country. They care not whether those European troops should belong to France or to any other country. Her Majesty's Government will not agree to become responsible for the future administration of a province of the Sultan by the agency of foreign troops.

In February, 1861, the Porte agreed to a conference on the subject of Syrian affairs. Meanwhile, her Majesty's Government declared that a British squadron would be stationed on the coast of Syria from the 1st of May, 1861, to the end of the summer, and that the French occupation must not be extended beyond the 1st of May, which was, however, extended to the 5th June.

INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT.

Accession of the Grand Duke of Hesse to the Convention concluded May 13, 1846, and June 14, 1855, between Great Britain and Prussia, for the establishment of International Copyright.

HER Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the King of Prussia, having concluded at Berlin, on the 13th of May, 1846, a convention for the reciprocal protection of copyright against piracy; and it having been stipulated in article 8 of that

convention that those German States which, together with Prussia, compose the German Union of Customs, or which might afterwards join that Union, should have the right of acceding to the said convention, completed subsequently by the additional convention of the 14th of June, 1855;

And his Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Hesse, being desirous of availing himself of the opportunity thus afforded to him to accede to the aforesaid convention of the 13th of May, 1846, as well as to the additional convention of the 14th of June, 1855;

The respective plenipotentiaries, that is to say:—

On the part of her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Lord Augustus Loftus, her Majesty's minister to his Majesty the King of Prussia;

On the part of his Majesty the King of Prussia, Count de Bernstorff, Minister for Foreign Affairs;

And on the part of his Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Hesse, the Sieur Francis Arnold de Biegeleben, Hessian minister to the Court of Prussia;—

Met together for the purpose of recording, in due form, the accession of his Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Hesse, as well as the acceptance, by her Britannic Majesty and his Prussian Majesty, of the said accession.

The plenipotentiary of his Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Hesse, in consequence, declares, in virtue of his full powers, that his said Royal Highness accedes, as well to the convention of the 13th of May, 1846, containing ten articles, and of which a printed copy is annexed to the present Act, as to the special provisions contained in sections 1—4 of the separate protocol signed on the same day, of which a copy is also hereunto annexed, and to the additional convention of the 14th of June, 1855, a copy whereof is annexed to the present Act; promising that the stipulations of those two conventions, which shall come into operation in the said Duchy of Hesse from and after the 1st of April, 1862, as well as those of the separate protocol, shall be carried into execution by his Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Hesse in all points, so far as they may be applicable to the relations which subsist between the Hessian Government and the British Government and its subjects; and declaring that English works registered, in virtue of article 2 of the convention, in the register book kept at Berlin, shall be entitled also to protection against piracy in the Grand Duchy of Hesse.

The plenipotentiaries of her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of his Majesty the King of Prussia, in virtue of their full powers, accept the accession of his Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Hesse; promising that the stipulations of the convention of the 13th of May, 1846, and those of the additional convention of the 14th of June, 1855, as well as the special provisions of the protocol of the 13th of May, 1846, shall be carried into execution by their respective sovereigns in all points with regard to the Hessian Government and its subjects, in the same manner as between the British and Prussian Governments and their subjects; the plenipotentiary of his Majesty the King of Prussia declaring, moreover, that the Prussian Government will undertake to communicate promptly to the Hessian Government every registration and deposit of English literary or artistic works which have been, or shall be, made at Berlin from and after the 1st of April, 1862.

Done at Berlin, the 19th of November, in the year of our Lord 1861, and signed by AUGUSTUS LOFTUS, BERNSTORFF, and DE BIEGELEBEN.

POLAND.

Correspondence with Prince Talleyrand respecting Poland, 1831.

On the 20th July, 1831, Prince Talleyrand sent to Viscount Palmerston a copy of a despatch which he received from General Count Sebastiani, dated 7th July, relative to the state of Poland, and to the advances towards conciliation which the King's Government had had the desire to make in concert with the Government of his Britannic Majesty. General Sebastiani wished to secure the co-operation of England in an interference in favour of Poland. "He believed that were England to act in agreement with France, for giving to this salutary intervention all the force of which it is susceptible, the effect might be made certain by the combination of these two Powers." To this despatch Viscount Palmerston answered as follows:—

The undersigned is commanded to express the sense entertained by his Majesty of the frank and conciliatory manner in which this communication has been made. It is his Majesty's sincere desire to cultivate the most friendly and confidential intercourse with the Court of France, more especially when the end in view is the preservation or the restoration of peace.

As far, therefore, as regards the desire of the French Government to secure to the Poles the national and political existence which it was one of the objects of the Treaty of Vienna to establish, the undersigned has to state, in the most distinct terms, that his Majesty could not consent to see Poland deprived of the advantages of that arrangement; nor has the undersigned waited for the present communication from the Prince de Talleyrand to make such representations upon this point to the Russian Cabinet as, without indicating any suspicion of the intentions of that Government, might prevent future misunderstanding.

The object of the communication which it is now proposed that France and England should jointly address to Russia, is an immediate cessation of hostilities, with a view to negotiations for the purpose of re-establishing peace between the contending parties by some lasting arrangement; and it appears from Count Sebastiani's despatch that a proposition to this effect has already been made to Russia by France, but hitherto without success.

If his Majesty had reason to think that the Emperor of Russia was disposed to avail himself of the good offices of the two courts, and that their intervention might lead to an accommodation, his Majesty would willingly co-operate in a friendly endeavour to restore peace between Russia and Poland. But there are, on the contrary, too many reasons for fearing that a simple offer of mediation, so far from being desired by his Imperial Majesty, would, at the present moment, certainly be refused.

Can it then be expedient to make a proposal which there is no ground to hope would be accepted; and which, if refused, would leave to the two Governments the embarrassing alternative of either acquiescing in a determined rejection of their proposal, or of taking measures to enforce it by means of a more direct and effectual interference? The British Government certainly is not prepared to adopt the latter course. The effects and bearing of the contest upon the security of other States have not hitherto been such as to warrant measures of such a description; nor has the conduct of Russia towards England been calculated to excite any

unfriendly feeling : she has, on the contrary, performed towards this country all the offices of a good and faithful ally, and, in the late difficult negotiations for the purpose of effecting a settlement between Belgium and Holland, she has acted with perfect fairness in her co-operation with the other four Powers.

Under these circumstances, his Majesty, deeply lamenting the calamities of a disastrous and desolating contest, does not think the time has yet arrived when he could be justified in adopting a proceeding which, however conciliatory in form, could not fail to alarm an independent Power, naturally jealous of its rights, and sensibly alive to everything which might appear to affect its national honour.

For these reasons his Majesty feels himself under the necessity of declining the proposal which the Prince de Talleyrand has been instructed to convey. But the undersigned is, at the same time, commanded to repeat to his Excellency that there exists on the part of his Majesty a sincere and earnest desire to co-operate with the King of the French in promoting the general interests of humanity and peace. The King can never look with indifference on such a state of things as that which now exists in Poland. His anxious attention will be constantly directed to the progress of the contest, and though he finds himself compelled at present to withhold his assent to the proposed offer of a joint mediation, his Majesty will not be the less anxious to avail himself of any favourable opportunity which the friendly relations subsisting between the Courts of Great Britain and Russia may afford, to lend his assistance to the benevolent work of putting a stop to the further effusion of blood, and of restoring to the countries now suffering under all the evils of war, the enjoyment of the blessings of peace.

The undersigned, &c.

PALMERSTON.

COUNT TELEKI

Papers relating to the Arrest and Extradition of Count Teleki.

COUNT LADISLAU TELEKI having been arrested in Saxony, and surrendered by the Saxon Government to the Austrian authorities, Mr. Murray sent to Lord John Russell a translation of the extradition treaties between Saxony and Austria on the subject. Subsequently, Count Teleki was pardoned and set free by the Emperor of Austria. The decrees on the subject set forth the clauses of the treaty as follows :—

Art. 1. Every attempt against the existence, the integrity, the safety, or the constitution of the German confederation, is to be tried and punished in the several confederated States according to the laws at present existing in them, or according to the laws by which a similar crime committed against a separate confederate State would be condemned as high treason, treason against the country, &c.

Art. 2. The confederated States mutually engage to deliver up to the injured or threatened State any individuals convicted of any attempt hostile to the Sovereign, or to the existence, integrity, constitution, or safety of another confederated State, or of a conspiracy with a view to such attempt,

or of participation in such a conspiracy, or of favouring such; with this proviso, that such individual is neither a subject of the State applied to for his extradition, nor already liable to trial or punishment for other crimes with which he may be charged. Should the attempt of which the individual is convicted be directed against several confederated States, the extradition must be made to that State which first makes the application for it.

Another decree was also issued respecting the publication of the resolution of the Confederation relating to the extradition of criminals in the territory of the German Confederation, dated February 27, 1854, to the following effect:—

Art. 1. It being understood that the decrees which were issued in accordance with the resolution of the Confederation of the 18th August, 1836, respecting the delivering up of political offenders, are to continue in force, the following Articles for enforcing that resolution are likewise decreed:—The confederated States mutually engage to deliver up individuals condemned for or accused of any crimes or transgressions (not being frauds in matters of taxation, or transgressions against police or financial regulations) by a tribunal of the State in which or against which the crime was committed, or against whom a sentence of arrest has been there pronounced, to that State; it being understood that the offence be likewise recognized as a crime or transgression by the laws of the State upon which the demand is made, and that the punishment has not yet become inapplicable through lapse of time. The only exceptions are—(1.) When the individual in question is a subject of the State called upon to deliver him up. (2.) When the judiciary court of the State from which the surrender of an accused person has been demanded, is itself competent to take cognizance of and punish the offence on account of which the demand for extradition has been made. (3.) When the individual to be delivered up is in detention in the State which is required to deliver him up, on account of other acts, or under arrest on account of debt or any other obligations.

Art. 2. In cases coming under Art. 1 (3), the extradition can only take place after acquittal, termination of sentence, or when the arrest of the person is at an end.

Art. 3. With the individual all articles are to be given up which may be in his possession, as well as any others which may aid in proving the crime.

Art. 4. The extradition is to take place at the request of the competent tribunal, or if there be a question of the arrest of a prisoner who has escaped, on the demand of the administration of the criminal tribunal in question to the magistrates or police of the district in which the accused resides. In the demand for extradition, the crime or transgression of which the individual is accused, or for which he has been condemned, is to be mentioned; also the date of the commission of the offence. If the offender has been condemned, the tribunal which tried him is to be specified, and the material part of the *procès-verbal* is to be given. The tribunal called upon to deliver up the individual must at once take steps to examine and decide upon the demand, and the extradition is then to take place at the frontier town lying nearest to the place of arrest, in which a tribunal of the proper kind exists to receive him.

Art. 5. If the extradition has been demanded by several States, it is to be granted to that State which first applied for it.

Art. 6 relates entirely to the expenses attending the detention of the individual.

Art. 7. The transport of individuals to be delivered up from the confederated States of Germany, or from other countries, shall be permitted, without hindrance, in the States of the Confederation lying between: and this obligation of extradition is subject to the same exceptions and restrictions which are established in Art. 1 (1 to 3), regarding the obligation of extradition.

Art. 8 relates solely to the security for the goods of the individual delivered up.

Art. 9 relates to the expenses.

Art. 10. By this contract the extradition treaties existing between separate German States are rendered void in so far as they contain decrees at variance with the mutual obligations established by this contract, or do not contain any special covenants respecting extraditions and the expenses of the same. The renewal of the extradition treaties existing with foreign States will be attempted in a manner conformable with the contents of this contract.

Art. 11. The dukedom of Limburg is excepted from participation in these treaties.

ARMY EFFECTIVES.

Returns of the Number of Effectives (including officers and Staff) on the British Establishment, on the First of each Month, from the 1st day of April to the 1st day of November, 1861, both inclusive: and, of the Number of Effectives (including Officers and Staff) on the Indian Establishment for the same Period. (7th February, 1862.) General Peel. (39.)

The number of effectives (including officers and staff) on the British establishment, on the first of each month, from the 1st day of April to the 1st day of November, 1861, both inclusive; and, of the number of Effectives (including officers and staff) on the Indian establishment for the same period, were as follows:—1st April, 1861, 146,851 British establishment, 82,236 India establishment; 1st May, 1861, 150,686 British establishment, 76,828 Indian establishment; 1st June, 1861, 150,235 British establishment, 76,256 Indian establishment; 1st July, 1861, 149,878 British establishment, 74,998 Indian establishment; 1st August, 1861, 149,385 British establishment, 74,658 Indian establishment; 1st September, 1861, 149,124 British establishment, 73,554 Indian establishment; 1st October, 1861, 149,411 British establishment, 72,084 Indian establishment; 1st November, 1861, 148,680 British establishment, 70,536 Indian establishment.

War Office, 13th February, 1862.

TREATY OF SALVADOR.

Treaty of Friendship, Commerce, and Navigation between her Majesty and the Republic of Salvador. Signed at Guatemala, October 24, 1862; ratifications exchanged at London, April 16, 1863.

HER MAJESTY the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Republic of Salvador, being desirous to maintain and improve the relations of good understanding which happily subsist between them, and to promote the commercial intercourse between their respective subjects and citizens, have deemed it expedient to conclude a treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation, and have for that purpose named as their respective plenipotentiaries, that is to say: her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom, George Benvenuto Mathew, Esq., her Majesty's Minister plenipotentiary to the Republics of Central America; and his Excellency the President of the Republic of Salvador, Senor Doctor Don Mariano Padilla, Knight of the Royal American Order of Isabel la Católica; who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon and concluded the following Articles:—

ART. I.—Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland recognizes the sovereignty and independence of the Republic of Salvador. Consequently, there shall be a perfect, firm, and inviolable peace and sincere friendship between her Britannic Majesty and the Republic of Salvador, throughout the whole extent of their possessions and territories, and between their subjects and citizens respectively, without distinction of persons or places.

ART. II.—The two high contracting parties being desirous of placing the commerce and navigation of their respective countries on the liberal basis of perfect equality and reciprocity, mutually agree that the subjects or citizens of each may frequent all the coasts and countries of the other, and reside therein, and shall have the power to purchase and hold all kinds of property which the laws of the country may permit any foreigners, of whatever nation, to hold, and to engage in all kinds of trade, manufactures, and mining, upon the same terms with native subjects or citizens. They shall enjoy all the privileges and concessions in these matters which are or may be made to the subjects or citizens of any country; and shall enjoy all the rights, privileges, and exemptions, in navigation, commerce, and manufactures, which native subjects or citizens do or shall enjoy, submitting themselves to the laws there established, to which native subjects or citizens are subjected. The ships of war and post-office packets of each contracting party, respectively, shall have liberty to enter into all harbours, rivers, and places within the territories of the other, to which the ships of war and packets of other nations are or may be permitted to come; to anchor there, and to remain and refit; subject always to the laws of the two countries respectively. The high contracting parties further engage that neither will grant any favour to any other nation, in respect of commerce and navigation, which shall not immediately become common to the other contracting party.

ART. III.—The high contracting parties agree that, in regard to the coasting trade, the ships, subjects, and citizens of each shall enjoy, in the dominions and territories of the other, the same privileges, and shall be

treated in all respects in the same manner, as national vessels, and as native subjects and citizens.

ART. IV.—The contracting parties likewise agree, that whatever kind of produce, manufacture, or merchandise can be from time to time lawfully imported into the British dominions in British vessels, may also be imported in vessels of the Republic of Salvador; and that no higher or other duties upon the vessel or upon her cargo shall be levied and collected, whether the importation be made in vessels of the one country or of the other: and in like manner, that whatever kind of produce, manufacture, or merchandise can be from time to time lawfully imported into the Republic of Salvador in its own vessels, may be also imported in British vessels; and that no higher or other duties upon the vessel or upon her cargo shall be levied or collected, whether the importation be made in vessels of the one country or of the other. And they further agree, that whatever may be lawfully exported or re-exported from the one country in its own vessels to any foreign country, may in like manner be exported or re-exported in the vessels of the other country; and that the same bounties, duties, and drawbacks shall be allowed and collected, whether such exportation or re-exportation be made in British vessels, or in vessels of the Republic of Salvador.

ART. V.—No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the British dominions of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Republic of Salvador, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the Republic of Salvador of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of the British dominions, than are or shall be payable on the same or the like article being the produce or manufacture of any other foreign country. Nor shall any higher or other duties or charges be imposed; in either of the two countries, on the exportation of any article to the territories of the other, than such as are payable on the exportation of the same or the like article to any other foreign country. No prohibition shall be imposed upon the importation of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of either of the two contracting parties into the territories of the other, which shall not equally extend to the importation of the same or the like article being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed on the exportation of any article from the territories of either of the two contracting parties to the territories of the other, which shall not equally extend to the exportation of the same or the like article to the territories of all other nations.

ART. VI.—The subjects and citizens of one of the contracting parties shall enjoy, in the dominions, possessions, and territories of the other, equality of treatment with native subjects and citizens, or with the subjects and citizens of the most favoured nation, in regard to warehousing, transit, and re-export, and also in regard to bounties, facilities, and drawbacks.

ART. VII.—No duties of tonnage, harbour, pilotage, lighthouse, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature or under whatever denomination, levied in the name or for the profit of the Government, public functionaries, corporations, or establishments of whatever kind, shall be imposed in the ports of either country upon the vessels of the other country, which shall not be equally imposed in the like cases on national vessels.

ART. VIII.—In order to prevent the possibility of any misunderstanding, it is hereby declared that the stipulations contained in the preceding Articles

are, to their full extent, applicable to British vessels and their cargoes arriving in the ports of Salvador, and reciprocally to the vessels of the said Republic and their cargoes arriving in British ports, whether they proceed from the ports of the country to which they respectively belong, or from the ports of any other foreign country; and, in either case, no discriminating duty shall be imposed or collected in the ports of either country on the said vessels or upon their cargoes, whether such cargoes shall consist of native or of foreign produce or manufacture.

ART. IX.—All vessels which, according to the laws of Great Britain, are to be deemed British vessels, and all vessels which, according to the laws of the Republic of Salvador, are to be deemed vessels of that Republic, shall, for the purposes of this treaty, be deemed British vessels and vessels of Salvador respectively.

ART. X.—It is likewise agreed, that it shall be wholly free for all merchants, commanders of ships, and other subjects or citizens of both countries, to manage, by themselves or agents, their own business in all the ports and places subject to the jurisdiction of each other, as well with respect to the consignment and sale of their goods and merchandize, by wholesale or retail, as with respect to the loading, unloading, and sending off their ships; they being, in all these cases, to be treated as subjects or citizens of the country in which they reside or are conducting their business, and to be subject to the laws of that country.

ART. XI.—Whenever the citizens of either of the contracting parties shall be forced to seek refuge or asylum in the rivers, bays, ports, or dominions of the other, with their vessels, whether merchant or of war, public or private, through stress of weather, pursuit of pirates or enemies, or want of provisions or water, they shall be received and treated with humanity, and all favour and protection shall be given to them for repairing their ships, procuring provisions, and placing themselves in a situation to continue their voyage without obstacle or hindrance of any kind.

ART. XII.—If any ship of war or merchant-vessel of either of the high contracting parties should be wrecked on the coasts of the other, such ship or vessel, or any parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereunto, and all goods and merchandise which shall be saved therefrom, or the produce thereof if sold, shall be faithfully restored to the owners, upon being claimed by them or by their duly authorized agents; and if there are no such owners or agents on the spot, then the said ships, or parts of ships, furniture, appurtenances, goods, and merchandise, or the proceeds thereof if sold, as well as all the papers found on board such wrecked ship or vessel, shall be delivered to the British consul or vice-consul, or to the consul or vice-consul of the Republic of Salvador, in whose district the wreck may have taken place, upon being claimed by him, and on his giving a receipt or acknowledgment for the same; and upon payment by such consul, vice-consul, owners, or agents, of only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, and of the salvage and other expenses which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck of a national vessel. The charge for such salvage or other expenses shall be made and settled immediately, subject to such right of appeal on the part of the person paying the same as may exist in the respective countries. The goods and merchandise saved from the wreck shall not be subject to duties, unless cleared for consumption; in which case they shall be liable only to the same duties as if they had been imported in a national vessel.

ART. XIII.—The subjects and citizens of either of the two contracting parties in the territories of the other shall be at full liberty to acquire, possess, and dispose of, whether by purchase, sale, donation, exchange, marriage, testament, succession *ab intestato*, or in any other manner whatever, every description of property which the laws of the country may permit any foreigners, of whatsoever nation, to hold. Their heirs and representatives may succeed to and take possession of such property, either in person or by agents acting on their behalf, in the ordinary form of law, in the same manner as subjects or citizens of the country; and in the absence of such heirs and representatives, the property shall be treated in the same manner as the like property belonging to a subject or citizen of the country under similar circumstances. In none of these respects shall they pay upon the value of such property any other or higher impost, duty, or charge, than is payable by subjects or citizens of the country. In every case the subjects and citizens of the contracting parties shall be permitted to export their property, or the proceeds thereof; British subjects from the territory of Salvador, and Salvador citizens from the British territory, freely, and without being subjected on such exportation to pay any duty as foreigners, and without having to pay any other or higher duties than those to which subjects or citizens of the country are liable.

ART. XIV.—Both contracting parties promise and engage formally to give their special protection to the persons and property of the subjects or citizens of each other, of all occupations, who may be in the territories subject to the jurisdiction of one or the other, transient or dwelling therein, leaving open and free to them the tribunals of justice, for their judicial recourse, on the same terms which are usual and customary with the native subjects or citizens of the country; for which purpose they may either appear in proper person, or employ, in the prosecution or defence of their rights, such advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors as they may judge proper, in all their trials at law; and such citizens or agents shall have free opportunity to be present at the decisions or sentences of the tribunals in all cases which may concern them, and shall enjoy in such cases all the rights and privileges accorded to native subjects or citizens.

ART. XV.—In the event of any subject or citizen of either of the two contracting parties dying without will or testament in the dominions or territories of the other contracting party, or in the absence of lawful heirs or representatives, the consul-general, consul, or acting consul of the nation to which the deceased may belong, shall, so far as the laws of each country will permit, have the right, after a duly made and attested inventory has been signed by him, to take possession and charge of the property which the deceased may have left for the benefit of his lawful heirs and creditors, giving immediate notice of the death to the authorities of the country.

ART. XVI.—The subjects of her Britannic Majesty residing in the Republic of Salvador, and the citizens of the Republic of Salvador residing in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, shall be exempted from all compulsory military service whatsoever, whether by sea or land, and from all forced loans, or military exactions or requisitions; and they shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatsoever, to pay any ordinary or extraordinary charges, requisitions, or taxes, other or higher than those that are or may be paid by native subjects or citizens.

ART. XVII.—It is agreed and covenanted that neither of the high contracting parties shall knowingly receive into, or retain in, its service, any

subjects or citizens of the other party who have deserted from the naval or military service of that other party; but that, on the contrary, each of the contracting parties shall respectively discharge from its service any such deserters, upon being required by the other party to do so. And it is further agreed, that if any of the crew of any merchant-vessel of either contracting party shall desert from such vessel within any port in the territory of the other party, the authorities of such port and territory shall be bound to give every assistance in their power for the apprehension of such deserters, on application to that effect being made by the consul of the party concerned, or by the deputy or representative of the consul: and any person knowingly protecting or harbouring such deserters shall be liable to punishment.

ART. XVIII.—British subjects residing in the territories of the Republic of Salvador shall enjoy the most perfect and entire liberty of conscience, without being annoyed, molested, or disturbed on account of their religious belief. Neither shall they be annoyed, molested, or disturbed in the proper exercise of their religion, in private houses, or in the chapels or places of worship destined for that purpose, provided that in so doing they observe the decorum due to divine worship, and the respect due to the laws of the country. Liberty shall also be granted to bury British subjects who may die in the territories of the Republic of Salvador, in convenient and adequate places, to be appointed and established by British subjects for that purpose, with the knowledge of the local authorities, or in such other places of sepulture as may be chosen by the friends of the deceased; nor shall the funerals or sepulchres of the dead be disturbed in any wise or upon any account. In like manner, the citizens of Salvador shall enjoy within the dominions of her Britannic Majesty a perfect and unrestrained liberty of conscience, and of exercising their religion within private houses, or in the chapels or places of worship destined for that purpose, agreeably to the laws of those dominions.

ART. XIX.—For the better security of commerce between the subjects and citizens of the two high contracting parties, it is agreed that if at any time any rupture, or any interruption of friendly intercourse, should unfortunately take place between the two contracting parties, the subjects or citizens of either of them, established in the territories of the other, who may reside upon the coasts, shall be allowed six months, and those who may reside in the interior a whole year, to wind up their accounts and to dispose of their property; and a safe-conduct shall be given to them to embark at the port which they themselves shall select. The subjects or citizens of either of the two contracting parties who may be established in the dominions or territories of the other, in the exercise of any trade or other occupation or employment, shall be allowed to remain and continue in the exercise of the said trade or occupation, notwithstanding the interruption of friendship between the two countries, in the free enjoyment of their personal liberty and property, so long as they behave peaceably and observe the laws; and their goods and effects, of whatever description they may be, whether in their own custody or entrusted to individuals or to the State, shall not be liable to seizure or sequestration, or to any other charges or demands than those which may be made upon the like effects or property belonging to native subjects or citizens. In the same case, debts between individuals, public funds, and the shares of companies, shall never be confiscated, sequestered, or detained.

ART. XX.—It shall be free for each of the two contracting parties to

appoint consuls for the protection of trade, to reside in the dominions and territories of the other party; but before any consul shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the Government to which he is sent. The diplomatic agents and consuls of each of the two high contracting parties in the dominions or territories of the other, shall enjoy whatever privileges, exemptions, and immunities are or shall be granted there to agents of the same rank, belonging to the most favoured nation.

ART. XXI.—The present treaty shall remain in force for the term of twenty years from the day of the exchange of ratifications; and if neither party shall notify to the other its intention of terminating the same, twelve months before the expiration of the twenty years stipulated above, the said treaty shall continue binding on both parties beyond the said twenty years, until twelve months from the time that one of the parties may notify to the other its intention of terminating it.

TREATY WITH BELGIUM.

Convention between Her Majesty and the King of the Belgians relative to Joint Stock Companies. Signed at London, November 13, 1862. Ratifications exchanged at London, December 8, 1862.

HER MAJESTY the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, having judged it expedient to come to an understanding in order to define within their respective dominions and possessions, the position of commercial, industrial, and financial companies and associations constituted and authorized in conformity with the laws in force in either of the two countries, have resolved to conclude a convention for that purpose, and have named as their plenipotentiaries, that is to say:—

Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Right Honourable John Earl Russell;

And his Majesty the King of the Belgians, the Sieur Sylvain Van de Weyer, his Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to her Britannic Majesty;

Who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:—

ART. 1.—The high contracting parties declare that they mutually grant to all companies and other associations, commercial, industrial, or financial, constituted and authorized in conformity with the laws in force in either of the two countries, the power of exercising all their rights, and of appearing before the tribunals, whether for the purpose of bringing an action, or for defending the same, throughout the dominions and possessions of the other Power, subject to the sole condition of conforming to the laws of such dominions and possessions.

ART. II.—It is agreed that the stipulations of the preceding article shall apply as well to companies and associations constituted and authorized previously to the signature of the present convention, as to those which may subsequently be so constituted and authorized.

ART. III.—The present convention is concluded without limit as to duration. Either of the high Powers shall, however, be at liberty to terminate it by giving to the other a year's previous notice. The two high Powers, moreover, reserve to themselves the power to introduce into the convention, by common consent, any modifications which experience may show to be desirable.

TREATY WITH BELGIUM.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Her Majesty and the King of the Belgians. Signed at London, July 23, 1862. Ratifications exchanged at London, August 30, 1862.

HER MAJESTY the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, being equally animated by the desire to facilitate and extend the relations of commerce and navigation between their respective dominions; and being desirous, with a view to so beneficial an object, to remove the obstacles which impede the commercial relations between the two countries, have resolved to conclude a treaty for that purpose, and have named as their plenipotentiaries, that is to say:—

Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Right Honourable John Earl Russell;

And his Majesty the King of the Belgians, the Sieur Sylvain Van de Weyer;

Who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:—

ART. I.—There shall be reciprocal liberty of commerce between all the dominions and possessions of the two high contracting parties; and the subjects of each of them shall, throughout the whole extent of the territories and possessions of the other, enjoy the same rights, privileges, liberties, favours, immunities, and exemptions, in matters of commerce and navigation, which are or may be enjoyed by native subjects.

ART. II.—The subjects of one of the two high contracting parties residing in the dominions of the other, shall have the same liberty as native subjects to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit them to the management of any other persons, as brokers, factors, agents, or interpreters. They shall not be restrained in their choice, and shall not be obliged to pay any salary or remuneration to any person whom they shall not choose to employ in those capacities; buyers and sellers being at perfect liberty to bargain together, and to fix the price of any goods or merchandize imported or destined for exportation, on condition of observing the regulations and the customs laws of the country.

ART. III.—In all that relates to navigation and commerce, the high contracting parties shall not grant any privilege, favour, or immunity to any other country, which shall not be also and immediately extended to their respective subjects.

ART. IV.—All vessels which according to the laws of Great Britain are to be deemed British vessels, and all vessels which according to the laws of,

Belgium are to be deemed Belgian vessels, are declared to be British and Belgian vessels respectively.

ART. V.—No duties of tonnage, harbour, light-house, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature or under whatever denomination, levied for the profit or in the name of the Government, public functionaries, communes, corporations, or establishments of whatever kind, shall be imposed in the ports of either country, upon the vessels of the other country, from whatever port or place arriving, which shall not be equally imposed in the like cases on national vessels.

ART. VI.—In all that regards the stationing, the loading, and unloading of vessels in the ports, basins, docks, roadsteads, harbours, or rivers of the two countries, no privilege shall be granted to national vessels, which shall not be equally granted to vessels of the other country; the intention of the high contracting parties being, that in this respect also the respective vessels shall be treated on the footing of perfect equality.

ART. VII.—British vessels entering a port of Belgium, and, reciprocally, Belgian vessels entering a port of Great Britain or of the British possessions, and desiring to discharge only a part of their cargo, may, subject to compliance with the laws and regulations of the respective countries, retain on board that part of the cargo which is destined for another port, whether in the same country or in any other country, and may re-export the same, without being compelled to pay, upon such retained part of their cargo, any duty of customs save those for watching, which, of course, shall be levied only at the rate fixed for national vessels.

ART. VIII.—Goods of every kind which are or may be legally importable into the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, its colonies and possessions, in British vessels, may likewise be imported into such ports in Belgian vessels, without being liable to other or higher duties, of whatever denomination, than if such goods were imported in national vessels. Reciprocally, goods of every kind which are or may be legally importable into the ports of Belgium in Belgian vessels, may likewise be imported into such ports in British vessels, without being liable to other or higher duties, of whatever denomination, than if such goods were imported in national vessels.

ART. IX.—Goods of every kind which may be exported either from Belgium by British vessels, or from Great Britain and the British possessions by Belgian vessels, for whatever destination, shall not be liable to any other duties or formalities on departure than if they were exported in national vessels; and they shall enjoy, under either flag, all bounties and drawbacks, or other favours, which are or may be granted in each of the two countries to national vessels.

ART. X.—During the period allowed by the laws of the two countries for the warehousing of goods, no other duties than those for custody and storage shall be levied upon articles imported from one of the two countries into the other, until they shall be removed for transit, re-exportation, or internal consumption. In no case shall such articles pay higher duties, or be liable to other formalities, than if they had been imported under the national flag, or from the most favoured country.

ART. XI.—Goods of every kind coming from or going to either of the two countries shall reciprocally be exempted from all transit duty. The prohibition in regard to gunpowder is, however, maintained; and the two high contracting parties reserve to themselves to subject the transit of arms

of war to special authorization. The treatment of the most favoured nation is reciprocally guaranteed to each of the two countries in all that concerns transit and warehousing.

ART. XII.—With regard to the coasting trade, it is agreed between the high contracting parties that the subjects and vessels of each of them shall, in the dominions and possessions of the other, enjoy the same privileges, and be treated in all respects on the same footing, as national subjects and vessels. With regard to the coasting trade in the Colonies, the stipulations of the present article shall be applicable only to the coasting trade of such of the Colonies of her Britannic Majesty as have applied or shall hereafter apply, in conformity with the Acts of Parliament which govern this matter, that their coasting trade may be open to foreign vessels.

ART. XIII.—The regulations established for goods imported from France into Belgium by Articles XVIII. to XXVI. inclusive, of the treaty of commerce concluded between the two countries on the 1st of May, 1861, shall equally apply in Belgium to the same goods imported from Great Britain and its possessions. With regard to pure or mixed tissues, taxed *ad valorem*, the valuation of which in the ports may appear to the Belgian Government to present difficulties, the Belgian Government reserves to itself the power to designate the custom-house of Brussels exclusively for the admission of such goods.

ART. XIV.—Neither of the two high contracting parties shall impose upon goods the produce or manufacture of the other party, other or higher duties of importation than such as are or may be imposed upon the same goods the produce of any other foreign country. Each of the two parties engages to extend to the other any favour or privilege, or reduction in the tariff of duties of importation or exportation, on articles mentioned, or not mentioned, in the present treaty, which either of them may grant to any third power. They engage, moreover, not to establish against each other any duty or prohibition of importation or exportation, which shall not, at the same time, be applicable to all other nations. It is further agreed that, if sea salt refined in Belgium should obtain a deduction of more than seven per cent. from the general duty of excise, British salt refined in Belgium shall enjoy, at the same moment, a deduction from the excise which shall not be inferior by more than seven per cent. to the deduction granted to sea salt.

ART. XV.—Articles the produce or manufacture of Belgium shall not be subject in the British Colonies to other or higher duties than those which are or may be imposed upon similar articles of British origin.

ART. XVI.—The subjects of one of the high contracting parties shall enjoy, in the dominions of the other, the same protection as native subjects in all that relates to property in trade marks, as well as in industrial and manufacturing patterns and models of every description. The exclusive right to make use of an industrial or manufacturing pattern or model shall not, with regard to British subjects in Belgium, and reciprocally with regard to Belgian subjects in Great Britain, have a duration longer than that fixed by the law of the country for native subjects. If the industrial or manufacturing pattern or model is open to the public in the country of origin, it cannot be made the subject of an exclusive right in the other country. The provisions of the two preceding paragraphs are applicable to trade marks. The rights of subjects of one of the high contracting parties in the dominions of the other are not subject to the condition that the models or patterns shall be worked there. The present article shall not be

put into operation in either country, with regard to such models or patterns, until the expiration of a year from the date of the signature of the present treaty.

ART. XVII.—Belgian subjects shall not have the right to claim in Great Britain exclusive property in a mark, model, or pattern, unless they shall have previously complied with the regulations, if any, which are or may be in force for the deposit at London, by British subjects, of marks, models, or patterns. Reciprocally, British subjects shall not have the right to claim in Belgium exclusive property in a mark, model, or pattern, unless they shall have previously complied with the laws and regulations on those subjects which are or may be in force in Belgium.

ART. XVIII.—Each of the high contracting parties shall have the right to name consuls for the protection of trade in the dominions and territories of the other party; and the consuls who may be so appointed shall enjoy, within the territories of each party, all the privileges, exemptions, and immunities which are or may be granted in those territories to agents of the same rank and character appointed by or authorized to act for the Government of the most favoured nation. Before any consul can act as such, he must, however, in the usual form be approved and admitted by the Government of the country to which he is sent; and each of the two high contracting parties shall have the right to except from the residence of consuls any particular places which either of them may judge proper to be excepted.

ART. XIX.—If any vessel of war or merchant-vessel of either of the two countries should be wrecked upon the coasts of the other, such vessel, or any parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereunto, as well as all goods and merchandize which shall be saved therefrom, or the proceeds thereof, if sold, shall be restored to the proprietors or to their agents, on being claimed by them. In case there should be no such proprietors or agents upon the spot, the said articles and goods, or the proceeds thereof, as well as all the papers found on board of any such vessel, shall be delivered to the British or Belgian consul in whose district the wreck shall have taken place; and such consul, proprietors, or agents shall not be called upon to pay any charge but the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, and the same rate of salvage which would be equally payable, under the like circumstances, by a national vessel. The goods and merchandize saved from the wreck shall not be subject to the established duties, unless cleared for consumption.

ART. XX.—The British flag shall continue to enjoy in Belgium the repayment of the Scheldt toll so long as the Belgian flag shall enjoy the same.

ART. XXI.—From and after, at latest, the day on which the capitalization of the Scheldt toll shall be effected by a general arrangement,—
1. The tonnage duty imposed in Belgian ports shall cease to be levied;
2. The pilotage duties in Belgian ports and in the Scheldt, so far as depends upon Belgium, shall undergo a reduction of 20 per cent. for sailing vessels; of 25 per cent. for vessels towed; of 30 per cent. for steam vessels; 3. The system of local taxes imposed by the city of Antwerp shall be throughout diminished.

ART. XXII.—As a temporary exception to the stipulations of Art. XIV., and for the space of two years from the 1st of October, 1862, the new system shall be applied in the following manner to certain articles of British

origin hereinafter enumerated:—Cotton yarns twisted, warped, or dyed, shall pay the duties imposed upon single yarns unbleached or bleached, with an addition of five centimes for twisted yarns, ten centimes for warped yarns, and fifteen centimes for dyed yarns, per kilogramme. The duty on stuff of wool mixed with cotton shall be twenty-two and a half per cent. until the 1st of October, 1863, and twenty per cent. until the 1st of October, 1864. During the continuance of the transitory system the importer may, at his choice, pay either one hundred and eighty francs the hundred kilogrammes, or the duties stipulated above. The duty upon printed cotton tissues shall be one hundred and fifty francs the hundred kilogrammes.

ART. XXIII.—It is understood that in case the present duty on the importation of foreign spirits should be maintained in the British tariff, the article relative to spirits which is contained in the treaty concluded between Belgium and France on the 1st May, 1861, shall not be applied to British spirits, so far as regards the reductions therein stipulated, until the 1st of October, 1865.

ART. XXIV.—The Ionian Islands being under the protection of her Britannic Majesty, the subjects and vessels of those islands shall enjoy, in the dominions of his Majesty the King of the Belgians, all the advantages which are granted to the subjects and vessels of Great Britain by the present treaty, as soon as the Government of the Ionian Islands shall have agreed to grant to the subjects and vessels of his Majesty the King of the Belgians the same advantages which are granted in those islands to the subjects and vessels of her Britannic Majesty: it being understood, that in order to prevent abuses, every Ionian vessel claiming the benefits of that treaty shall be furnished with a patent signed by the Lord High Commissioner of her Britannic Majesty, or by his representative.

ART. XXV.—The present treaty shall continue in force for ten years dating from the tenth day after the exchange of the ratifications. In case neither of the two high contracting parties should have notified, twelve months before the end of the said period, its intention to terminate the treaty, it shall remain in force until the expiration of a year dating from the day on which either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice for its termination. The high contracting parties reserve to themselves the right to introduce into the treaty, by common consent, any modifications which may not be at variance with its spirit or principles, and the utility of which may be shown by experience.

ART. XXVI.—From and after the date fixed by the preceding article, the treaty of commerce and navigation of the 27th of October, 1851, shall cease to be in force.

Protocol of Conference held at the Foreign Office, July 23, 1862, between the Plenipotentiaries of Great Britain and of Belgium.

THE plenipotentiaries of her Britannic Majesty and of his Majesty the King of the Belgians, in proceeding to the signature of the treaty of commerce and navigation between their august Sovereigns, place upon record that they have agreed upon the following points:—1. That the declarations relative to the arrest of seamen deserters, dated the 4th of January, 1856, and the order in council bearing date the 8th of February, 1855, and published in the *London Gazette*, of the 13th of February, shall continue in force and validity, as if they had been inserted in the said treaty. 2. That

although the fishery convention concluded on the 22nd of March, 1852, between her Britannic Majesty and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, is provisionally maintained, it is under the reservation made by the Government of his Majesty the King of the Belgians, that they will again bring forward, in a future negotiation, the proposition relative to the reciprocal permission to fish within the marine territorial limit. In maintaining the said convention concluded on the 22nd of March, 1853, an exception to the stipulations of the treaty of commerce and navigation signed this day, is made in so far as regards the advantages which are or may be given in either country to the produce of national fishery. 3. With regard to sugar the Government of his Majesty the King of the Belgians reserve to themselves to renew their proposition that an agreement should be come to between Great Britain, Belgium, France, the Zollverein, and the Netherlands, for respectively bringing the duties upon raw and refined sugars imported from any one of those countries into the others to an equality with the taxes imposed upon the same productions of national origin, and for terminating simultaneously in those five countries the system of bounties on the exportation of sugar. The Belgian Government rely upon the support and co-operation of the Government of her Britannic Majesty for this purpose.

Protocol of Conference held at the Foreign Office, August 30, 1862, between the Plenipotentiaries of Great Britain and of Belgium.

THE undersigned, in proceeding to the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty of commerce and navigation concluded on the 23rd of July, 1862, between her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, have agreed to record in the present protocol the modifications in the said treaty arranged this day between them; and in consequence of which the following tariff is adopted:—

Nos.	COTTON YARNS.	
	First year.	Second year.
20,000 ^m and under	22 centimes	20 centimes
20,000 to 30,000	30 "	25 "
30,000 to 40,000	45 "	35 "
40,000 to 65,000	60 "	50 "

Above 65,000, free entry (weighing charge of 10 centimes) during the whole duration of the treaty. These modifications shall have the same force and effect as if they were textually inserted in the said treaty, and they shall come into operation from the 1st of October, 1862, the old duties continuing to be applied to the above-mentioned articles, as well as to the mixed tissues (Article XXII. of the treaty), up to that date.

DEFENCE COMMISSION.

Report of the Defence Commissioners, and of the Naval and Military Officers associated with them, with reference to the Proposed Fort behind the Plymouth Breakwater.

IN compliance with the instructions contained in your letter of the 5th instant, we have carefully considered whether it is advisable to proceed with the construction of a fort inside Plymouth Breakwater as recommended in our report of 7th February, 1860. The question referred to us embraces

two considerations:—First, the necessity of placing a fort on or near the breakwater for the defence of the anchorage; secondly, the position in which such a work should be placed. With regard to the first point, we would observe that although the works at Picklecombe, Staddon, Drake's Island, and the citadel bring a heavy fire to bear upon the channels leading to Plymouth Sound and Hamoaze, and command a certain portion of the Sound, a great part of that anchorage is not covered by the fire of those works, except at long ranges. A fort either on or near the breakwater, will, to a great extent, supply this deficiency, whilst at the same time it will bring a fire to bear on any ships that might take up a position outside the breakwater for the purpose of bombarding the dockyard, or firing into any vessels at anchor in the Sound. A fort so placed would also be in the best position for supporting floating defences, and for affording protection to any portion of our sea-going fleet seeking refuge under its guns.

With respect to the second consideration, the choice seems to be limited to three positions:—1st. A fort might be placed on each end of the breakwater. 2nd. It might be erected on the breakwater near its centre. 3rd. It might be placed in a suitable position inside the breakwater. Each of these plans has been already carefully considered. The first has much to recommend it. Forts on each end of the breakwater would bring a closer fire to bear on each channel leading to the Sound, and would command a large portion of the anchorage by a cross fire. It will be seen from the report of Messrs. Walker, Burges, and Cooper, engineers of Plymouth breakwater, addressed to the Under Secretary of State for War, and dated 21st June, 1861, that, before the recommendation of this commission was acted upon, this proposal was fully investigated. It appears that it would be necessary to lay the foundation of the eastern fort at low-water neap-tides, and that of the western fort at half-tide level, spreading them considerably to distribute the weight of the superstructure over a large area of the breakwater, and, in some places, extending the base below low-water mark. Moreover, the heavy seas which set in during southerly gales would break with great force against the walls of the forts, and thus produce increased action upon the existing "foreshores" by the recoil of the waves, rendering it necessary to secure the foot of the present paved slope by a buttress work of granite masonry dovetailed together vertically and horizontally. The expense of constructing foundations in the sea would, therefore, not be avoided by adopting this proposal, whilst the lower tier of guns in the works would lose much of their efficiency, even in moderate weather, owing to the wash of the sea up the gentle slope of the exterior side of the breakwater, the top of which is very little above the level of high water spring tides.

But the great objection to placing forts on the breakwater is, that the limestone rubble of which it is chiefly composed cannot be depended upon as a durable foundation for a superstructure of far greater weight than it was originally calculated to bear. This is shown by the subsidence which has actually occurred to the works on Cherbourg breakwater. These objections to the erection of a smaller fort at each end apply with greater force to placing a fort on the centre of the breakwater, its breadth being insufficient to receive the whole of the foundation, which would therefore be partly on the rock inside and partly on the breakwater; the difficulty of construction would thus be much increased, as the same mode would not be the most efficient for both portions, and the danger of subsidence of that part on the breakwater would still remain.

The site that has therefore been chosen for the erection of the work is on a portion of the shovel rock, inside and a little to the westward of the centre of the breakwater, and as close to its inner slope as practicable. The rock is comparatively level at this spot, and is covered with a thin deposit of fine silt. It has been carefully examined in a diving bell, and it has been found to be in every respect suitable for the foundation.

The outside of the fort will be within sixty yards of the breakwater, its area will be less than half an acre, and from its position it will not interfere with the anchorage of a single ship. On this point we have obtained the evidence of Commander Aylen, the Queen's harbour-master at Plymouth, who states that the site proposed is not available for the anchorage of ships of war, being so close to the breakwater that it would be unsafe to place a ship in such a position that she would swing over it.

It also appears in his evidence that a portion of the north front of the fort may be made available as a coaling dépôt, in which case one at least of the coal hulks now moored in the Sound might be dispensed with, and the moorings she occupies be appropriated to one of the ships of the fleet. The expense of the foundation of a work in the position we have recommended will be less than that of the two on the ends of the breakwater, and all danger of subsidence will be avoided; from its position it will be protected from the wash of the sea, so that the lower tier of guns may be placed as low as the top of the breakwater will allow; and communication with it will be practicable in all weathers. On consideration, therefore, of all the circumstances, we are of opinion that a work behind Plymouth breakwater is necessary for the defence of the Sound, and that the site on which it is proposed to erect it is the best that could be selected.

This report was signed by Harry D. Jones, lieutenant-general; George Elliot, rear-admiral; F. Abbott, major-general; A. Cooper Key, captain R.N.; J. H. Lefroy, colonel R.A.; James Fergusson, members of the Royal commission; and by Richard Collinson, captain R.N.; J. St. George, colonel R.A.; William S. Wiseman, captain R.N.; H. D. Harness, colonel R.E., associated members.

IRON AND WOODEN SHIPS.

Statement relating to the Advantages of Iron and Wood, and the relative cost of these Materials in the Construction of Ships for her Majesty's Navy.

TAKING it for granted that it is essential for this country to possess a number of ships armour-plated, equal to that of any other Power, the first consideration must be with regard to such ships as we require, whether they shall be of wood or iron.

There are two important points involved in this consideration:—1. The nature of the material. Iron possesses these advantages over wood—an iron ship can be built of larger dimensions than a wooden ship, with no loss of strength; an iron ship has more rigidity and strength of structure, as a whole, than a wooden ship, though locally weak and liable to be penetrated by blows, which would fall harmlessly on a wooden ship; an iron ship has much greater durability in certain parts of the structure, indeed, in all parts where no wood is in contact with the iron, than a wooden ship; and after a lapse of years the iron frame would have suffered next to nothing as compared with a wooden ship. But against these advantages must be

set—the serious local weakness of the comparatively thin plates of which the bottom of an iron ship is necessarily composed; the danger, consequently, of getting on rocks in such ships; and the necessity which this weakness entails of constructing double bottoms, thwartship bulkheads, water-tight compartments, sluice-doors, &c., and various other complicated arrangements, which add both to the weight and cost of an iron ship; the rapidity with which the bottom of an iron ship gets foul, and the immense loss of all the ship's qualities that follows from the adhesion of marine zoophytes—no practical remedy has been found for this serious disadvantage; repeated docking and cleaning is the only palliative;—the extreme uncertainty as to the quality of the material used, in fact the small quantity of really good iron of the best ship-building qualities that can be found in the market; the prodigious ravages caused by the splinters of iron when the plates are broken and smashed by shot; and the far greater facility with which iron ships can be pierced below their armour-plating by submarine guns than wooden ships; lastly, as the progress that may be made by artillery, and all destructive agents of warfare, is quite without a limit, the immense price paid in an iron ship for durability may not be an advantage, as new forms for ships of war may, before long, be absolutely requisite—the iron ship of to-day, for which so large a price has been paid, may not be the weapon we require to-morrow. It may prove, therefore, wiser and more economical to supply the wants of the moment by a cheaper and less durable structure, which at least is of the same quality as those with which we may have to contend. The most able designer of war ships in Europe, whose success has been so remarkable, M. Dupuy de l'Ôme, is of this opinion, and constructs the ships that are to form the French line-of battle of wood in preference to iron.

2. The second point to be considered in this question is—where and how the ships, whether of wood or iron, shall be constructed. If iron is the material preferred, we have the choice of either incurring a large outlay in our dockyards for the requisite plant, or of building by contract. In one dockyard only (Chatham) we can build in iron without any fresh expense. If, therefore, we take the other alternative, and build by contract, the following serious disadvantages attend upon our doing so. The first practical fact that comes before us is, that in no one instance have the contractors kept to their agreements with the Government, either as to time or cost. Though the cases are notorious, and will be found in a tabulated form annexed to this paper, I will quote one or two instances:—The *Warrior* was ordered on 11th May, 1859; the contractors agreed to deliver her complete in July, 1860. She was delivered on the 20th September, 1861, and not quite completed till the 24th October, 1861. The contractors agreed to build her for 210,225*l.*, including extras. They claimed, and ultimately received, 254,728*l.* The *Black Prince* was ordered on the 6th October, 1859. The contractors agreed to deliver her complete on the 10th October, 1860. She was delivered in complete on the 18th November, 1861. She was not completed for some months afterwards by the artificers of the dockyard. The contractors agreed to build her for 230,254*l.* They have claimed for her 259,751*l.*, and part of this claim is still under consideration; she has, however, cost the Admiralty, up to this time, 249,751*l.* In both of these ships, but more particularly in the *Warrior*, some delay was occasioned in completing the ships by the alterations made in the course of building. The *Defence* was delivered incomplete four months after the contractors' agree-

ment. The *Resistance* was delivered incomplete ten months after the contractors' agreement. The *Hector*, if delivered in the course of the month of March, will be seven months behind the time agreed upon. The *Valiant* should have been delivered, according to the original contract, in August, 1862; the contractors failed, and requested the Admiralty to annul their agreement. Another contract was made, with a fresh party, to deliver the ship in March, 1863. There is no prospect whatever of the work being finished for six months after that date. The same or even greater delay has taken place in the delivery of the *Orontes* and *Tamar*, although these are of simple construction, and are not armour-plated. There is no prospect that more than one out of the four iron ships last ordered will be delivered till many months after the periods agreed upon. It is not, therefore one contractor, or one iron ship-builder, but all who have failed in their agreements, and this clearly indicates the uncertainty attending this mode of construction.

The other difficulties present themselves:—1. The general slovenliness of the work performed by iron ship-builders, rendering the presence of an Admiralty inspector necessary on the premises wherever the contract ships are building, and leading to many difficulties between the contractors and the Admiralty; and, 2. The great temptations that beset the contractors, owing to the cost and difficulty of procuring good iron, to use inferior and cheaper material. Again, after a contract is signed, no alteration or improvement, however great, can be made without submitting to any terms the contractor chooses to enforce. Strikes of workmen, strikes of colliers, disputes in trade, all interfere with the progress of the work, and always to the prejudice of the Government. But, if wood be the material selected, the place of building will be our own dockyard, with all the plant, appliances, and materials already at hand. No more money will be required than what already appears in the navy estimates; whereas, if the ships are built of iron by contract, the whole of the money required to do so must be voted separately, and in addition to the ordinary navy estimates, and the increase of the total charge to the country could only be diminished in a very small degree, if at all, by the discharge of a limited number of workmen from some of the yards, who, in such a case, are entitled to pensions or gratuities, for it would still be necessary to retain that large portion of workmen who are employed in repairs, fitting and refitting ships, and in building the smaller classes which are essential for the protection of our trade in the distant corners of the globe. In every way, therefore, the system of building by contract armour-plated iron ships would be more expensive than building armour-plated ships of wood in our dockyards. The wooden ship, though in some respect inferior in rigidity to the iron, and not quite so strong as a whole, is yet, if we may believe the detailed accounts we have received of such ships as the *Gloire*, *Normandie*, *Magenta*, and *Solferino*, perfectly sufficient for the weight it has to bear. Very bad weather has had no effect upon the *Gloire*, a wooden ship plated from stem to stern, and, therefore, far more heavily loaded and more severely tried than any of our iron armour-plated ships have yet been; none of these ships having armour plates at their extremities. Taking all the circumstances of the case into consideration, it seems decidedly preferable, at the present time, to build these ships in our dockyards of wood, rather than in private yards, and of iron.

(Signed)

ROBERT SPENCER ROBINSON.

FOREIGN RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Papers relating to Foreign Affairs laid before the Congress of the United States at the opening of the Session in 1861, communicated in a Despatch from her Majesty's Minister at Washington, dated December 6, 1861.

On the 28th February, 1861, Mr. Black, Secretary of States, sent a despatch to all the Ministers of the United States, informing them of the rebellion which resulted upon the election of Mr. Abraham Lincoln as President, and the formation of a convention of the Southern States, with a congress composed of representatives from South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas, and with a constitution for what is styled "the Confederate States of America." Mr. Black, in this circular, urged on the ministers to use their influence at the different courts in order to frustrate the efforts of such States to obtain the recognition of their independence.

On the 9th March, 1861, Mr. Seward sent a despatch to all the Ministers of the United States, desiring them to represent to the different Governments that harmony and union would soon be restored, that the disturbance was only caused by popular passions, and that the Federal Union affords the best system to secure peace and prosperity. On the 24th April, Mr. Seward wrote another despatch to the same ministers on the subject of maritime international law. Recalling the state of the question, after the Congress of Paris, in 1856, Mr. Seward stated that the United States Government was prepared to enter into conventions on the same basis—viz., 1st. Privateering is and remains abolished. 2. The neutral flag covers enemy's goods, with the exception of contraband of war. 3. Neutral goods, with the exception of contraband of war, are not liable to capture under enemy's flag. 4. Blockades, in order to be binding, must be effective, that is to say, maintained by a force sufficient really to prevent access to the coast of the enemy.

PRUSSIA.

The answer to these circulars from the Minister in Prussia was, "That the Government, from the principle of unrelenting opposition to all revolutionary movements, would be one of the last to recognize any *de facto* government of the disaffected States of the American Union." Upon the subject of international maritime law, the Prussian Government replied that there was no danger of Prussian subjects engaging under the authority of the so-called Confederate States in fitting out privateers, and that the sympathies of the Government and people were with the United States. Subsequently a proposal having been made to the Prussian Government to enter into a separate treaty on the subject, it was decided that there was no need for it, and that it was sufficient if the United States gave its adhesion to the Paris Treaty.

BELGIUM.

The Belgian Government expressed a desire to be quite neutral on the question, but complained of the high tariff imposed in America.

M. de Vrière spoke of the new tariff with a great deal of feeling; said that it was highly prejudicial to their interests, instancing in point that forty

furnaces for the manufacture of window glass had been stopped in consequence, and expressed his surprise that, in this age of progress, when Europe was abandoning the exploded system, as he expressed himself, of differential duties, the United States should pursue such a course. Their own experience as a manufacturing people had convinced them of the bad policy of such a system for the interests of the manufacturers themselves. The American minister replied to this that he presumed the general interruptions of trade consequent upon apprehended war in the United States was, quite as much as the new tariff, a cause for suspension of the traffic he referred to. The tariff had been augmented by the last Congress to produce more revenue; if it failed to produce such result, it would probably be changed. It was a matter dependent on the will of Congress, and he was aware we had had several changes in the past few years, none of which had apparently given satisfaction to the manufacturing States of Europe which desired to supply the American markets; still it was their main source of revenue; and the system of raising means for the expenses of the Government by a duty on importations would probably long continue.

MEXICO.

In his despatch to the minister in Mexico Mr. Seward referred to the frequent occurrence of robberies and murders, and to the total want of public confidence in the country. The archives were full of complaints against the Mexican Government for violation of contracts, and spoliation and cruelties practised against American subjects. It was not the President's intention to send forward such claims at the present moment. He willingly deferred the performance of a duty which, at any time, would seem ungracious, until the incoming administration in Mexico shall have had time, if possible, to cement its authority and reduce the yet disturbed elements of society to order and harmony. The minister, would however, be expected, in some manner which will be marked with firmness as well liberality, to keep the Government there in mind that such of these claims as shall be found just will, in due time, be presented and urged upon its consideration.

While now, as heretofore, it was a duty of this Government to reason with that of Mexico, and deprecate a continuance of the chronic reign of disorder there, a crisis had unhappily arrived, in which the performance of this duty was embarrassed by the occurrence of civil commotions in their own country, by which Mexico, in consequence of her proximity, was not unlikely to be affected. The spirit of discontent seems, at last, to have crossed the border, and to be engaged in an attempt to overthrow the authority of this Government in some parts of the country which adjoin the Mexican republic. It was much to be feared that new embarrassments of the relations of the two countries will happen when authority so long prostrated on the Mexican side finds the power of the United States temporarily suspended on this side of the frontier. Whatever evils shall thus occur, it is much to be feared will be aggravated by the intervention of the Indians, who have been heretofore with difficulty restrained from violence, even while the federal authority has been adequately maintained. Both of the Governments must address themselves to this new and annoying condition of things, with common dispositions to mitigate its evils and abridge its duration as much as possible.

The President would use all proper influence to favour the restoration of order and authority in Mexico, and, so far as it might be in his power, he would prevent incursions and every other form of aggressions by citizens of the United States against Mexico. But he enjoined the minister to employ his best efforts in convincing the Government of Mexico, and even the people, if, with its approval, he could reach them, that the surest guarantee of their safety against such aggressions was to be found in a permanent restoration of the authority of that Government. If, on the other hand, it shall appear in the sequel that the Mexican people are only now resting a brief season to recover their wasted energies sufficiently to lacerate themselves with new domestic conflicts, then it was to be feared that not only the Government of the United States, but many other governments will find it impossible to prevent a resort to that magnificent country of a class of persons, unhappily too numerous everywhere, who are accustomed to suppose that visionary schemes of public interest, aggrandisement, or reform will justify even lawless invasion and aggression. In connection with this point, Mr. Seward informed the Minister that the Mexican Government had, through its representative here, recently complained of an apprehended attempt at invasion of the State of Sonora by citizens of California, acting, as was alleged, with the knowledge and consent of some of the public authorities in that State. The American Minister would assure the Mexican Government that, due care being first taken to verify the facts thus presented, effective means should be adopted to put our neutrality laws into activity. Mr. Seward further stated that the same representative had also expressed to the President an apprehension that the removal of the Federal troops from the Texan border might be followed by outbreaks and violence there. There was, perhaps, too much ground for this apprehension. Moreover, it was impossible to foresee the course of the attempts which are taking place in that region to subvert the Federal authority of this Government. The President, however, meantime directed the American Minister to assure the Mexican Government that due attention should be bestowed on the condition of the frontier, with a view to the preservation and safety of the peaceable inhabitants residing there. He hoped and trusted that equal attention would be given to this important subject by the authorities of Mexico.

For a few years past the condition of Mexico has been so unsettled as to raise the question on both sides of the Atlantic whether the time has not come when some foreign Power ought, in the general interest of society, to intervene to establish a protectorate, or some other form of government, in that country, and guarantee its continuance there. Such schemes may even now be held under consideration by some European nations, and there is also some reason to believe that designs have been conceived in some parts of the United States to effect either a partial dismemberment, or a complete overthrow of the Mexican Government, with a view to extend over it the authority of the newly-projected Confederacy, which a discontented part of our people are attempting to establish in the southern part of our own country. The American Minister might possibly meet agents of this projected Confederacy busy in preparing some further revolution in Mexico. He would not fail to assure the Government of Mexico that the President neither has, nor can ever have, any sympathy with such designs, in whatever quarter they may arise, or whatever character they may assume.

GREAT BRITAIN.

In his despatch to Mr. Adams, the American Minister in London, Mr. Seward alluded to two pending questions.

Although Great Britain and the United States possess adjacent dominions of large extent, and although they divide, not very unequally, a considerable portion of the commerce of the world, yet there are at present only two questions in debate between them. One of these concerns the line of boundary running through Puget's Sound, and involves the title to the island of San Juan. The other relates to a proposition for extinguishing the interest of the Hudson's Bay and Puget's Sound agricultural companies in the territory of Washington. The discussion of these questions has hitherto been carried on here, and there is no necessity for removing it to London. It is expected to proceed amicably, and result in satisfactory conclusions. It would seem, therefore, on first thought, that you would find nothing more to do in England than to observe and report current events, and to cultivate friendly sentiments there towards the United States. Nevertheless, the peculiar condition of our country, in the present juncture, renders these duties a task of considerable delicacy.

Mr. Seward then entered into the causes of the revolution as follows:—

One needs to be as conversant with our federative system as perhaps only American publicists can be to understand how effectually, in the first instance, such a revolutionary movement must demoralise the general government. We are not only a nation, but we are States also. All public officers, as well as all citizens, owe, not only allegiance to the Union, but allegiance also to the States in which they reside. In the more discontented States the local magistrates and other officers cast off at once their federal allegiance, and conventions were held which assumed to absolve their citizens from the same obligations. Even Federal judges, marshals, clerks, and revenue officers resigned their trusts. Intimidation deterred loyal persons from accepting the offices thus rendered vacant. So the most important faculties of the Federal Government in those States abruptly ceased. The resigning Federal agents, if the expression may be used, attorned to the revolutionary authorities, and delivered up to them public funds and other property and possessions of large value. The Federal Government had, through a long series of years, been engaged in building strong fortifications, a navy yard, arsenals, mints, treasuries, and other public edifices, not in any case for use against those States, but chiefly for their protection and convenience. These had been unsuspectingly left either altogether or imperfectly garrisoned or guarded, and they fell, with little resistance, into the hands of the revolutionary party. A general officer of the army gave up to them a large quantity of military stores and other property, disbanded the troops under his command, and sent them out of the territory of the disaffected States.

It may be stated, perhaps without giving just offence, that the most popular motive in these discontents was an apprehension of designs on the part of the incoming Federal Administration hostile to the institution of domestic slavery in the States where it is tolerated by the local constitution and laws. That institution, and the class which especially cherishes it, are not confined to the States which have seceded, but they exist in the eight other so-called slave States; and these, for that reason, sympathize profoundly with the revolutionary movement. Sympathies and apprehensions

of this kind have, for an indefinite period, entered into the bases of political parties throughout the whole country, and thus considerable masses of persons, whose ultimate loyalty could not be doubted, were found, even in the free States, either justifying, excusing, or palliating the movement towards disunion in the seceding States. The party which was dominant in the Federal Government during the period of the last administration embraced, practically, and held in unreserved communion, all disunionists and sympathisers. It held the executive administration. The secretaries of the Treasury, War, and the Interior were disunionists. The same party held a large majority of the Senate, and nearly equally divided the House of Representatives. Disaffection lurked, if it did not openly avow itself, in every department and in every bureau, in every regiment and in every ship of war; in the post-office and in the custom-house, and in every legation and consulate from London to Calcutta. Of 4470 officers in the public service, civil and military, 2154 were representatives of States where the revolutionary movement was openly advocated and urged, even if not actually organized. Our system being so completely federative and representative, no provision had ever been made, perhaps none ever could have been made, to anticipate this strange and unprecedented disturbance. The people were shocked by successive and astounding developments of what the statute-book distinctly pronounced to be sedition and treason, but the magistracy was demoralized and the laws were powerless. By degrees, however, a better sentiment revealed itself. The executive administration, hesitatingly, in part, reformed itself. The capital was garrisoned, the new President came in unresisted, and soon constituted a new and purely loyal administration. They found the disunionists perseveringly engaged in raising armies and laying sieges around national fortifications situate within the territory of the disaffected States. The Federal marine seemed to have been scattered everywhere except where its presence was necessary, and such of the military forces as were not in the remote States and territories were held back from activity by vague and mysterious armistices which had been informally contracted by the late President, or under his authority, with a view to postponement, until impracticable concessions to disunion should be made, or, at least, until the waning term of his administration should reach its appointed end. Commissioners, who had been sent by the new Confederacy, were already at the capital demanding recognition of its sovereignty, and a partition of the national property and domain. The treasury, depleted by robbery and peculation, was exhausted, and the public credit was prostrate.

It would be very unjust to the American people to suppose that this singular and unhappy condition of things indicated any extreme favour or toleration of the purpose of a permanent dissolution of the Union. On the contrary, disunion at the very first took on a specious form, and it afterwards made its way by ingenious and seductive devices. It inculcated that the Union is a purely voluntary connexion, founded on the revocable assent of the several States; that secession, in the case of great popular discontent, would induce consultation and reconciliation, and so that revolution, instead of being war, is peace and disunion, instead of being dissolution, is union. Though the ordinances of secession in the seceding States were carried through impetuously, without deliberation, and even by questionable majorities, yet it was plausibly urged that the citizens who had remained loyal to the Union might wisely acquiesce, so as ultimately to

moderate and control the movement, and in any event that if war should ensue, it would become a war of sections, and not a social war, of all others, and especially in those States, the form of war most seriously to be deprecated. It being assumed that peaceful separation is in harmony with the Constitution, it was urged as a consequence that coercion would, therefore, be unlawful and tyrannical; and this principle was even pushed so far as to make the defensive retaining by the Federal government of its position within the limits of the seceding States, or where it might seem to overawe or intimidate them, an act of such forbidden coercion. Thus it happened that for a long time, and in very extensive districts even, fidelity to the Union manifested itself by demanding a surrender of its powers and possessions, and compromises with or immunity towards those who were engaged in overthrowing it by armed force. Disunion under these circumstances rapidly matured. On the other hand, the country was bewildered. For the moment even loyal citizens fell naturally into the error of inquiring how the fearful state of things had come about, and who was responsible for it, thus inviting a continuance of the controversy out of which it had arisen, rather than rallying to the duty of arresting it. Disunion, sustained only by passion, made haste to attain its end. Union, on the contrary, required time, because it could only appeal to reason, and reason could not be heard until excitement should in some degree subside. Military spirit is an element always ready for revolution. It has a fuller development in the disaffected than in the loyal States. Thousands of men have already banded themselves as soldiers in the cause of disunion, while the defenders of the Union, before resorting to arms, everywhere wait to make sure that it cannot be otherwise preserved. Even this cautious and pacific, yet patriotic disposition has been misunderstood and perverted by faction to encourage disunion.

After having thus dwelt on the causes of the secession, and on the prospects of early restoration of order, Mr. Seward gave to Mr. Adams the following instructions:—

Before considering the arguments you are to use, it is important to indicate those which you are not to employ in executing that mission:

First. The President has noticed, as the whole American people have, with much emotion, the expressions of good will and friendship toward the United States, and of concern for their present embarrassments, which have been made on apt occasions by her Majesty and her Ministers. You make due acknowledgment for these manifestations, but at the same time you will not rely on any mere sympathies or national kindness. You will make no admissions of weakness in our Constitution, or any apprehensions on the part of the Government. You will rather prove, as you easily can, by comparing the history of our country with that of other States, that its Constitution and Government are really the strongest and surest which have ever been erected for the safety of any people. You will in no case listen to any suggestions of compromise by this Government, under foreign auspices, with its discontented citizens. If, as the President does not at all apprehend, you shall unhappily find her Majesty's Government tolerating the application of the so-called seceding States, or wavering about it, you will not leave them to suppose for a moment that they can grant that application and remain the friends of the United States. You may even assure them promptly in that case that if they determine to recognize, they may at the same time prepare to enter into alliance with the enemies of this republic. You alone

will represent your country at London, and you will represent the whole of it there. When you are asked to divide that duty with others, diplomatic relations between the Government of Great Britain and this Government will be suspended, and will remain so until it shall be seen which of the two is most strongly entrenched in the confidence of their respective nations and of mankind.

You will not be allowed, however, even if you were disposed, as the President is sure you will not be, to rest your opposition to the application of the Confederate States on the ground of any favour this administration, or the party which chiefly called it into existence, proposes to show to Great Britain, or claims that Great Britain ought to show to them. You will not consent to draw into debate before the British Government any opposing moral principles which may be supposed to lie at the foundation of the controversy between those States and the Federal Union.

You will indulge in no expressions of harshness or disrespect, or even impatience, concerning the seceding States, their agents, or their people. But you will, on the contrary, all the while remember that those States are now, as they always heretofore have been, and, notwithstanding their temporary self-delusion, they must always continue to be, equal and honoured members of this Federal Union, and that their citizens, throughout all political misunderstandings and alienations, still are and always must be our kindred and countrymen. In short, all your arguments must belong to one of three classes, namely:—First. Arguments drawn from the principles of public law and natural justice, which regulate the intercourse of equal States. Secondly. Arguments which concern equally the honour, welfare, and happiness of the discontented States, and the honour, welfare and happiness of the whole Union. Thirdly. Arguments which are equally conservative of the rights and interests, and even sentiments of the United States, and just in their bearing upon the rights, interests, and sentiments of Great Britain and all other nations. We freely admit that a nation may, and even ought, to recognize a new State which has absolutely and beyond question effected its independence, and permanently established its sovereignty; and that a recognition in such a case affords no just cause of offence to the Government of the country from which the new State has so detached itself. On the other hand, we insist that a nation that recognizes a revolutionary State, with a view to aid its effecting its sovereignty and independence, commits a great wrong against the nation whose integrity is thus invaded, and makes itself responsible for a just and ample redress.

The first question agitated on the formation of the Confederate States, was the probability of a recognition of these States by foreign powers. When Mr. Adams arrived in London, in May, 1861, the question of privateers began to be agitated. On the 3rd June Mr. Seward wrote to Mr. Adams that the American Government had reason to fear that Great Britain was prepared to aid or sympathize with the insurrection from the following facts:—

1. A guarded reserve on the part of the British Secretary of State, when Mr. Dallas presented to him our protest against the recognition of the insurgents, which seemed to imply that, in some conditions, not explained to us, such a recognition might be made.

2. The contracting of an engagement by the Government of Great Britain with that of France, without consulting us, to the effect that both Governments should adopt one and the same course of procedure in regard to the insurrection.

3. Lord John Russell's announcement to Mr. Dallas that he was not unwilling to receive the so-called commissioners of the insurgents unofficially.

4. The issue of the Queen's proclamation, remarkable, first, for the circumstances under which it was made, namely, on the very day of your arrival in London, which had been anticipated so far as to provide for your reception by the British Secretary, but without affording you the interview promised before any decisive action should be adopted; secondly, the tenor of the proclamation itself, which seems to recognise in a vague manner, indeed, but does seem to recognise, the insurgents as a belligerent national power.

That proclamation, unmodified and unexplained, would leave us no alternative but to regard the Government of Great Britain as questioning our free exercise of all the rights of self-defence guaranteed to us by our constitution and the laws of nature and of nations to suppress the insurrection.

Mr. Adams had frequent interviews with Earl Russell on these subjects, but there was no reason for the apprehension showed by Mr. Seward. Still, the position taken by Great Britain, in granting belligerent rights to the Confederate States, gave great dissatisfaction to the United States. Soon after came the proposal by the United States Government to accept the propositions of Maritime Law agreed on by the Congress of Paris in 1856; but the negotiations were abandoned, since the United States wished to apply the resolutions concerning privateers to the ships of the Confederate States; and Earl Russell proposed to insert the following declaration:—

"In affixing his signature to the convention of this day, between her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, and the United States of America, the Earl Russell declares, by order of her Majesty, that her Majesty does not intend thereby to undertake any engagement which shall have any bearing, direct or indirect, on the internal differences now prevailing in the United States."

Lastly, there was the question of the exequation to Mr. Bunch, British consul in Charleston, for having been the means of conveying despatches of the Confederate Government.

AUSTRIA.

In his despatch to Mr. Burlingame Mr. Seward observed, that hitherto the mission of the United States to Austria had not been made as useful as it ought to have been, and that it had been undervalued. He then instructed Mr. Burlingame to prevent by all means the recognition of the Confederate States. The correspondence was also directed to the question of neutral rights and maritime law, the United States Government being prepared to adhere to the Congress of Paris.

FRANCE.

On the 22nd April, 1861, Mr. Seward gave instructions to Mr. Dayton, on his entrance to the important duties connected with the American mission in France. After reference to the causes of this revolution, and expressing the resolve of the American Government to restore the union, Mr. Seward thus referred to the question of intervention:—

Foreign intervention would oblige us to treat those who should yield it as allies of the insurrectionary party, and to carry on the war against them as enemies. The case would not be relieved, but, on the contrary, would only be aggravated if several European States should combine in that intervention. The President and the people of the United States deem the union,

which would then be at stake, worth all the cost and all the sacrifices of a contest with the world in arms, if such a contest should prove inevitable.

However other European powers may mistake, his Majesty is the last one of those sovereigns to misapprehend the nature of this controversy. He knows that the revolution of 1775 in this country was a successful contest of the great American idea of free popular government against resisting prejudices and errors. He knows that the conflict awakened the sympathies of mankind, and that ultimately the triumph of that idea has been hailed by all European nations. He knows at what cost European nations resisted for a time the progress of that idea, and perhaps is not unwilling to confess how much France, especially, has profited by it. He will not fail to recognize the presence of that one great idea in the present conflict, nor will he mistake the side on which it will be found. It is, in short, the very principle of universal suffrage, with its claims to obedience to its decrees, on which the Government of France is built, that is put in issue by the insurrection here, and in this emergency to be vindicated, and more effectually than ever established by the Government of the United States. Mr. Dayton was also instructed to enter into a convention with France as regards maritime law.

In reply, Mr. Dayton stated that he had been received by the Emperor, and that France took great interest in the condition of the United States; the Emperor having expressed his willingness to mediate between the United and Confederate States, with a view to restore the Union. In answer, however, to this proposal, Mr. Seward wrote on the 8th June:—

We appreciate highly the Emperor's assurance that he would mediate between the Government and the insurgents, with a view to the maintenance and preservation of the Union, if such intervention were deemed desirable by us; and that generous offer imposes a new obligation upon us toward France, which we acknowledge with sincere pleasure.

If mediation were at all admissible in this grave case, that of his Majesty would not be declined. But the present paramount duty of the Government is to save the integrity of the American Union. Absolute, self-sustaining independence is the first and most indispensable element of national existence. This is a republican nation; all its domestic affairs must be conducted, and even adjusted, in constitutional republican forms and upon constitutional republican principles. This is an American nation, and its internal affairs must not only be conducted with reference to its peculiar continental position, but by and through American agencies alone. These are simple elementary principles of administration, no one of which can be departed from with safety in any emergency whatever; nor could it be departed from with the public consent, which rightfully regulates, through constitutionally constituted popular authorities, the entire business of the Government.

I have set them forth in no invidious, uncharitable, or ungenerous spirit. I state them fairly and broadly, because I know the magnanimity of the Emperor of France, and I know that he can appreciate directness and candour in diplomacy. I know, moreover, that he is a friend of the United States, and desires that they may continue one great and independent nation for ever. I know still further, that the principles I have thus stated will commend themselves to his own great wisdom. To invite or to accept mediation would be incompatible with these principles.

When all this has been said, you will then further say to M. Thouvenel,

or to the Emperor, that if any mediation were at all admissible it would be his own that we should seek or accept.

On learning subsequently that the French Government were disposed to grant belligerent rights to the Confederate States, Mr. Seward wrote strongly to Mr. Dayton to the following effect:—

It is erroneous, so far as foreign nations are concerned, to suppose that any war exists in the United States. Certainly there cannot be two belligerent powers where there is no war. There is here, as there has always been, one political power, namely, the United States of America, competent to make war and peace, and conduct commerce and alliances with all foreign nations. There is none other, either in fact, or recognized by foreign nations. There is, indeed, an armed sedition seeking to overthrow the Government, and the Government is employing military and naval forces to repress it. But these facts do not constitute a war presenting two belligerent powers, and modifying the national character, rights, and responsibilities, or the characters, rights, and responsibilities of foreign nations. It is true that insurrection may ripen into revolution, and that revolution, thus ripened, may extinguish a previously existing State, or divide it into one or more independent States, and that if such States continue their strife after such division, then there exists a state of war affecting the characters, rights, and duties of all parties concerned. But this only happens when the revolution has run its successful course. The French Government says, in the instruction which has been tendered to us, that certain facts which it assumes confer upon the insurgents of this country, in the eyes of foreign powers, all the appearance of a government *de facto*, wherefore, whatever may be its regrets, the French Government must consider the two contending parties as employing the forces at their disposal in conformity with the laws of war.

This statement assumes not only that the law of nations entitles any insurrectionary faction, when it establishes a *de facto* government, to be treated as a belligerent, but also that the fact of the attainment of this status is to be determined by the appearance of it in the eyes of foreign nations. If we should concede both of these positions, we should still insist that the existence of a *de facto* government, entitled to belligerent rights, is not established in the present case. We have already heard from most of the foreign nations. There are only two which seem so to construe appearances, and France is one of them. Are the judgments of these two to outweigh those of all other nations? Doubtless each nation may judge and act for itself, but it certainly cannot expect the United States to accept its decision upon a question vital to their national existence. The United States will not refine upon the question when and how new nations are born out of existing nations. They are well aware that the rights of the States involve their duties and their destinies, and they hold those rights to be absolute as against all foreign nations. These rights do not at all depend on the appearances which their condition may assume in the eyes of foreign nations, whether strangers, neutrals, friends, or even allies. The United States will maintain and defend their sovereignty throughout the bounds of the republic, and they deem all other nations bound to respect that sovereignty until, if ever, Providence shall consent that it shall be successfully overthrown. Any system of public law, or national morality, that conflicts with this would resolve society, first in this hemisphere and then in the other, into anarchy and chaos.

SPAIN.

In communicating the fact of the insurrection, Mr. Seward urged upon the American Minister to watch that the Spanish Government shall give no countenance to the so-called Confederate States. In July, 1861, Mr. Seward informed M. Tassara on the subject of certain vessels belonging to the citizens of the United States detained at the port of Cienfuegos, in the island of Cuba. It appears that a piratical steamer called *Sumter*, on the 6th July, entered that port with seven vessels belonging to citizens of the United States, which she had captured, with their officers, and also the officers and seamen of another such vessel, which she had captured and burned on the high seas. The *Sumter* was, on that occasion manned by a full complement of seamen, marines, officers, and firemen. She carried an armament of four or eight heavy guns; and thus manned and armed, the vessel was supplied with coal and water at Cienfuegos, and was allowed to depart on the same day to a destination unknown. Mr. Seward, therefore, instructed M. Tassara to demand the immediate release and discharge of the captured vessels and their cargoes. In consequence of this communication, M. Schurz, the American Minister, had a conversation with the Minister of Foreign Affairs on the subject, and that Minister made the following statement:—

Spain had followed, in relation to vessels coming from the ports of the so-called Southern Confederacy, the same rules of action which she had adopted in the case of vessels clearing from the ports of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies after the assumption of royal authority in that kingdom by King Victor Emmanuel. It was well known that Spain had not recognized the so-called kingdom of Italy, and that the consular agents of King Francis I. were still exercising their functions in the Spanish ports. Nevertheless, Spain did not oblige the masters of vessels arriving in Spanish ports from the ports of the kingdom of Naples to submit to the authority of the consuls of Francis I., but permitted them to address themselves either to these or to the consular officers of King Victor Emmanuel, as they saw fit. But this permission given to vessels coming from the Neapolitan ports to transact their business with the consuls of Victor Emmanuel was by no means intended to imply a recognition of the Italian kingdom; for Spain recognized in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies no other authority as lawful and legitimate than that of King Francis I.

In like manner, it was permitted to vessels coming from the ports now under the control of the so-called Confederate States, upon their arrival in Spanish ports, to address themselves to the consular authorities of the United States, if they saw fit to do so; but, as in the case of vessels coming from Neapolitan ports, Spain did not think proper to oblige them to do so. This practice, however, was by no means intended to imply, in any manner, a recognition of the so-called Confederate States as an independent nation.

But in the case of these vessels the action of Spain was still more justifiable than in the case of the Neapolitan vessels. The Government of the United States was, with its naval forces, blockading the southern ports, and it was their business to see to it that no vessels should escape from the ports thus guarded. It could not be expected of Spain to supply the deficiencies of the maritime police of the United States, nor was it reasonable to expect that she should turn away from her ports vessels engaged in ordinary peaceful commerce, and which had not been able to

obtain regular papers even if they had wanted to do so. Nor could Spain oblige such vessels by force to submit to the authority of the consular officers of the United States. Spain was acting solely with a view to the protection of her commercial interests, and nothing else.

• ROME.

Mr. Seward wrote to Mr. King at Rome, asking him to urge upon the Government of his Holiness to exercise its influence in favour of peace; in answer Mr. Stockton, the successor of Mr. King, wrote that his eminence the Secretary of State said that the Catholics of the United States, as Catholics, as a church, would take no part in the matter; it would not be proper for them to do so. As citizens he had no doubt they would all feel a great concern at our internal dissensions. He added, you are aware that the Government of his Holiness concerns itself mainly in spiritual matters, but we are the supporters of law and order everywhere. He said he regarded the United States as a great and free country, and he hoped that Mr. King would be assured that the kind sentiments of our Government to the Holy See were appreciated and reciprocated.

RUSSIA.

On the 6th May, 1861, Mr. Seward sent a despatch to Mr. Clay to the following effect:—Nations, like individuals, have three prominent wants; first, freedom; secondly, prosperity; thirdly, friends. The United States early secured the two first objects by the exercise of courage and enterprise. But, although they have always practiced singular moderation, they nevertheless have been slow in winning friends. Russia presents an exceptional case. That power was an early, and it has always been a constant friend. This relationship between two nations, so remote and so unlike, has excited much surprise, but the explanation is obvious. Russia, like the United States, is an improving and expanding empire. Its track is eastward, while that of the United States is westward. The two nations, therefore, never come into rivalry or conflict. Each carries civilization to the new regions it enters, and each finds itself occasionally resisted by States jealous of its prosperity, or alarmed by its aggrandizement. Russia and the United States may remain good friends until each having made a circuit of half the globe in opposite directions, they shall meet and greet each other in the region where civilization first began, and where, after so many ages, it has become now lethargic and helpless. It will be your pleasing duty to confirm and strengthen these traditional relations of amity and friendship. Assure his Imperial Majesty that the President and the people of the United States have observed with admiration and sympathy the great and humane efforts he has so recently made for the material and moral improvement of his empire by the extension of telegraphs and railroads, and by removing the disabilities of slavery. Make it your duty to inquire whether the sluggish course of commerce between the two nations cannot be quickened, and its volume increased. Russia is capable of receiving cotton and tobacco from us in much larger quantities than we now send. The former is not a staple of that country, and although it produces tobacco, yet not of so high a quality as that which we sent abroad, and of which Russia consumes more than any other nation. We can well receive from that country increased quantities of hemp and flax, tallow, and other productions in exchange. Russia is liberal to our inventors, engineers, and machinists; but vicious

adventurers too often abuse this generous encouragement by fraudulent practices. See if you can devise a plan for correcting this evil. I suggest that it might be done by effecting free interchange of newspapers and scientific journals. A Russian landing at New York can cross this western continent without once being required to exhibit a passport. Why will not Russia extend the same hospitality to us, and enable the American citizen, when he debarks at Revel, to cross the eastern continent in like manner unquestioned. The American abroad is not more than the Russian a propagandist, and while Russia pursues the general policy of the present reign it can have nothing to fear from American influences.

Mr. Seward then detailed the circumstances of the revolution and the unhappy effects it would have should it succeed. On the receipt of this despatch, Mr. Appleton had an interview with Prince Gortchacow, when he said that the question of recognizing the Confederate States was not then before the Emperor, and for the present he did not think it would be. On the 10th July Prince Gortchacow sent to Mr. de Stoeckl the following despatch:—

From the beginning of the conflict which divides the United States of America you have been desired to make known to the Federal Government the deep interest with which our august master was observing the development of a crisis which puts in question the prosperity and even the existence of the Union.

The Emperor profoundly regrets to see that the hope of a peaceful solution is not realized, and that American citizens, already in arms against each other, are ready to let loose upon their country the most formidable of the scourges of political society—a civil war.

For the more than eighty years that it has existed, the American Union owes its independence, its towering rise, and its progress, to the concord of its members, consecrated, under the auspices of its illustrious founder, by institutions which have been able to reconcile union with liberty. This union has been fruitful. It has exhibited to the world the spectacle of a prosperity without example in the annals of history.

It would be deplorable that, after so conclusive an experience, the United States should be hurried into a breach of the solemn compact which, up to this time, has made their power.

In spite of the diversity of their constitutions and of their interests, and perhaps, even because of this diversity, Providence seems to urge them to draw closer the traditional bond which is the basis and the very condition of their political existence. In any event, the sacrifices which they might impose upon themselves to maintain it are beyond comparison with those which dissolution would bring after it. United, they perfect themselves; isolated, they are paralyzed.

The struggle which unhappily has just arisen can neither be indefinitely prolonged nor lead to the total destruction of one of the parties. Sooner or later it will be necessary to come to some settlement, whatsoever it may be, which may cause the divergent interests now actually in conflict to co-exist.

The American nation would then give a proof of high political wisdom in seeking in common such a settlement before a useless effusion of blood, a barren squandering of strength and of public riches, and acts of violence and reciprocal reprisals shall have come to deepen an abyss between the two parties to the confederation, to end definitely in their mutual exhaus-

tion, and in the ruin, perhaps irreparable, of their commercial and political power.

Our august master cannot resign himself to admit such deplorable anticipations. His Imperial Majesty still places his confidence in that practical good sense of the citizens of the Union, who appreciate so judiciously their true interests. His Majesty is happy to believe that the members of the Federal Government and the influential men of the two parties will seize all occasions, and will unite all their efforts to calm the effervescence of the passions. There are no interests so divergent that it may not be possible to reconcile them by labouring to that end with zeal and perseverance in a spirit of justice and moderation.

If, within the limits of your friendly relations, your language and your councils may contribute to this result, you will respond, sir, to the intentions of his Majesty the Emperor in devoting to this the personal influence which you may have been able to acquire during your long residence at Washington, and the consideration which belongs to your character as the representative of a sovereign animated by the most friendly sentiments towards the American Union. This Union is not simply, in our eyes, an element essential to the universal political equilibrium. It constitutes, besides, a nation to which our august master and all Russia have pledged the most friendly interest; for the two countries placed at the extremities of the two worlds, both in the ascending period of their development, appear called to a natural community of interests and of sympathies, of which they have already given mutual proofs to each other.

I do not wish here to approach any of the questions which divide the United States. We are not called upon to express ourselves in this contest. The preceding considerations have no other object than to attest the lively solicitude of the Emperor in presence of the dangers which menace the American Union, and the sincere wishes which his Majesty entertains for the maintenance of that great work, so laboriously raised, which appeared so rich in its future.

It is in this sense, sir, that I desire you to express yourself, as well to the members of the general Government as to influential persons whom you may meet, giving them the assurance that in every event the American nation may count upon the most cordial sympathy on the part of our august master during the important crisis which it is passing through at present.

Receive, sir, the expression of my very distinguished consideration.

GORTCHACOW.

DENMARK.

On the 1st May, 1861, Mr. Seward wrote to Mr. Wood, the American Minister in Copenhagen, on the subject of the insurrection, and proposing to adhere to the declaration of the Congress of Paris. In answer to this, Mr. Wood wrote that Mr. Hall readily acceded to the doctrine of the Paris convention in regard to privateering, though it was reluctant, in the present state of European affairs, to adopt the demands of Mr. Marcy.

ITALY.

In his communication to Mr. Marsh, at Turin, Mr. Seward said:—The American revolution of 1776, with its benignant results, was due to the happy combination of three effective political ideas: First, that of emanci-

pation from the distant European control of Great Britain; second, popular desire for an enlargement of the political rights of the individual members of the State upon the acknowledged theory of the natural rights of man; third, the want of union among the States to secure safety, tranquillity, aggrandizement, and fame.

The revolution attempted in 1861 is a spasmodic reaction against the revolution of 1776. It combines the three ideas which were put down, but not extinguished, in that great war, namely: First, European authority to regulate political affairs on this continent; second, the aggrandizement and extension of human slavery; third, disunion, dissolution, anarchy.

Any impartial thinker can see that an attempt at a revolution so unnatural and perverse as this could never have been embraced by any portion of the American people, except in a moment of frenzied partisan disappointment; that it has no one element of success at home, and that it is even more portentous to all other Governments than to our own. It is painful to see faction stalking abroad in one's native land. But faction is incident to every State, because it is inherent in human nature. We prefer, if it must come, that it come in just its present form and character. It will perish by simply coming to confront the American people, for the first time brought to meet that enemy of national peace and safety in arms. The people are aroused, awakened, resolute, and determined. The danger is, therefore, already passed. We no longer fear—indeed, we hardly deprecate—the disaster of civil war brought upon us without fault. We now see that it may be regarded as a necessary trial to preserve the perfection of our constitution, and to remove all remaining distrust of its durability and its adaptation to the universal wants of mankind.

Mr. Marsh had repeated interviews with Baron Ricasoli on the subject of the revolution, and he gave full assurance that no agent of the Confederate States would be recognized at any Italian port. Negotiations were then opened on the subject of the declaration of Paris, but in consequence of the objections started by Great Britain and France, the question was set aside.

SWITZERLAND.

To Mr. Fogg, at Berne, Mr. Seward wrote:—Tell the Swiss Republic, then, that with God's blessing, we will preserve this model of federal republican government by which they have reformed their institutions, and we invoke them to retain their own with no less fidelity. So Switzerland and the United States shall in after ages be honoured as the founders of the only true and beneficent system of human government—a system that harmonizes needful authority with the preservation of the natural rights of man. Every free citizen of Switzerland who comes here, so long as he remains, is practically a citizen of the United States. He goes in and out everywhere unchallenged. Nevertheless, the American citizen in Switzerland is a stranger, and the reiterated demand for his passport at every angle in his course reminds him painfully that he is suspected. His least elevated motive for going there is trade and commerce; but the objects of most of our citizens in visiting Alpine countries are health and study of the more sublime and inactive features of nature, and a fervent admiration for the free people who dwell among them. In the United States there is not one man base enough to do or wish an injury to the enlightened government or to the people of Switzerland. Why, then, should not the government of

that country make us conscious of its confidence by allowing us the enjoyment of national hospitality while we are sojourning in their beautiful country?

Mr. Fogg had an interview with the President of the Confederation on the subject, and, in reply to Mr. Fogg's address, President Knüsel said: The Swiss Confederation has always taken a lively interest in everything concerning the great sister republic beyond the Atlantic. How could it be otherwise? The similarity of the democratic federate institutions, the independence and liberty which both enjoy, and which they had to obtain by force of arms, has necessarily led to a mutual approach, however great the distance be which separates the old world from the new. In this may be found, perhaps, a principal reason why for a long series of years numerous Swiss families emigrated to the United States, where they sought and found a new home, and why the names of Swiss cantons and towns are now to be found where for thousands of years uncultivated and unpopulated forests and prairies existed. The intercourse between the two nations has since steadily increased: the produce of one country finds its market in the other, and numerous points of connection develop themselves ever more and more.

This harmony of political principles, sympathies, and interests has, for its consequence, a steadily increasing approach of both nations, which has already, on different occasions, shown itself by marks of mutual cordiality. Names like that of William Tell, so dear to Switzerland, were given to sea vessels by citizens of the United States. The federal council responded to that salutation by hoisting the Swiss flag on the mainmast of those ships. To the colossal monument which the United States erected in memory of their liberator, the immortal Washington, Switzerland has contributed a stone with an inscription. Many more similar marks of mutual esteem might be enumerated; suffice it to add the remark that a treaty of friendship and commerce, concluded a few years ago, has but strengthened the relations between the two countries.

Switzerland, from the sincere sympathy which she has for the welfare of the Union, looks with anxiety upon the issue of the events which now shake that country. Switzerland passed through a similar crisis fourteen years ago, which threatened to tear asunder the then loose connection of the twenty-two cantons. But renewed rose the present confederation from that tempest; strengthened internally and abroad, she now stands there, esteemed by the nations. May God grant that the connexion of the States of the United States of America may also emerge renewed and strengthened out of this crisis.

The President of the Swiss Confederation presents his best thanks, through your excellency, to the President of the United States for his assurances of friendship and sympathy. He hopes that the new minister resident will thoroughly acquaint himself with our relations and laws. That would render the more possible for him a strict performance of his duties; the protection of the rights and interests of American citizens, and the preservation of a good and ever friendly understanding with the Swiss Government, which wishes to unite *loyauté* with their maintenance of authority. The President of the Confederation may add that he thinks the retiring minister resident has learned to esteem Switzerland, her authorities, and nation, and he may give to Mr. Fay the plain assurance that he has acquired the esteem and the love of the country and her magistrates. The

President of the Confederation doubts not a moment the relations between the Federal council and the present representative of America will always be of the most friendly character.

NETHERLANDS.

On the 16th May, 1861, Mr. Seward wrote to Mr. Pike, the American minister at the Hague, both as regards the passport system, the state of relations with Japan, and the subject of maritime law. In consequence of this, Mr. Murphy, the successor, sent a despatch to the Minister for Foreign Affairs asking the Netherlands Government to continue to be neutral on the subject of non-intervention. It seemed, however, that though the Government would lend no aid to the revolution, public sentiment in the Netherlands was favourable to the seceding States. The arrival of the *Sumter* at the port of Curaçoa gave occasion for some correspondence, she having been allowed to enter the port and to replenish her exhausted stock of fuel and supplies. A demand having been made by the American Government, Baron Von Zuylen sent the following despatch to Mr. Pike, laying down the state of the law on the subject:—

The Hague, September 17, 1861.

SIR,—The department of the colonies has just communicated to me the information, transmitted by the governor of Curaçoa, concerning the affair of the ship *Sumter*, and I hasten to bring to your notice the following observations, by way of sequence to the preliminary reply which I had the honour to address to you on the 2nd of this month. According to the principles of the law of nations, all nations without exceptions may admit vessels of war belonging to a belligerent State to their ports, and accord to them all the favours which constitute an asylum. Conditions are imposed on said vessels during their stay in the port or roadstead. For example, they must keep perfect peace with all vessels that may be there; they may not augment their crews, nor the number of their guns, nor be on the lookout in the ports or roadsteads for the purpose of watching after hostile vessels arriving or departing, &c. Besides, every state has the right to interdict foreign vessels of war from entrance to ports which are purely military. Thus it was that Sweden and Denmark, in 1854, at the time of the Crimean war, reserved the right to exclude vessels of war from such or such ports of their dominions.

The neutral power has also the right to act like France, who, by her declaration of neutrality in the war between the United States and the Confederate States, under date of 9th June last (*Moniteur* of 11th June), does not permit any vessel of war, or privateer, of one or the other of the belligerents, to enter and remain with their prizes in French ports longer than twenty-four hours, unless in case of refuge under stress.

In the proclamation of the month of June last, which was communicated to you with my despatch of the 13th, the Government of the Netherlands has not excluded vessels of war from her ports.

As to privateers, the greatest number of the maritime nations allows them the privilege of asylum upon the same conditions nearly as to vessels of war.

According to a highly-esteemed author on the law of nations (Hautefeuille, *Droits et Devoirs des Nations Neutres*, i. p. 139), privateers may claim entrance into the ports of nations which have consented to accord asylum to them, not only in cases of pressing dangers, but even in cases in

which they may deem it advantageous, or even only agreeable, and for obtaining rest or articles of secondary necessity, such as the refreshments they may have need of.

The terms of the proclamation of the Netherlands Government, which admits privateers into Netherland ports only in cases of distress, harmonize with this doctrine.

Moreover, according to the information received from the governor of Curaçoa, the *Sumter* was actually in distress, and that functionary could not, therefore, refuse to allow the said vessel to enter the port.

Strong in its amicable intentions, the King's Government does not believe itself bound to confine itself to the defence of the conduct of one of its agents in the particular case under discussion. It is not ignorant that it can or may hereafter be a contested question in such cases as to the reality of the distress in which such vessel or other would be, and that thus the subject of the admission generally of the Confederate States vessels would rest untouched. I therefore, sir, think it opportune to look into the question to determine whether the *Sumter* should have been admitted at Curaçoa outside of the condition of well-assured distress.

It is evident that the reply to be made is dependent on another question—that is to say, was this vessel a man-of-war or a privateer?

In the latter case, the Netherlands Government could not, except in case of a putting in compelled by distress (*relâche forcée*), admit the *Sumter* into the ports of its territories.

It is not sufficient to dispose of the difficulty by the declaration that the *Sumter* is, as is stated in your despatches, "a vessel fitted out for, and actually engaged in, piratical expeditions," or "a privateer steamer." Such an assertion should be clearly proved, in accordance with the rule of law, *affirmanti incumbit probatio*.

After having poised, with all the attention which comports with the weightiness of the matter, the facts and circumstances which characterize the dissensions which now are laying desolate the United States, and of which no Government more desires the prompt termination than does that of the Netherlands, I think I may express the conviction that the *Sumter* is not a privateer, but a man-of-war—grounding myself on the following considerations:—

In the first place, the declaration of the commander of the vessel given in writing to the governor of Curaçoa, who had made known that he would not allow a privateer to come into the port, and had then demanded explanations as to the character of the vessel. This declaration purported "the *Sumter* is a ship-of-war duly commissioned by the Government of the Confederate States."

The Netherlands governor had to be contented with the word of the commander couched in writing. Mr. Ortolan (*Diplomatie de la Mer*, i. p. 217), in speaking of the evidence of nationality of vessels of war, thus expresses himself:—

"The flag and the pennant are visible indications, but we are not bound to give faith to them until they are sustained by a cannon shot."

The attestation of the commander may be exigible, but other proofs must be presumed; and, whether on the high seas or elsewhere, no foreign power has the right to obtain the exhibition of them.

Therefore the colonial council has unanimously concluded that the word of the commanding officer was sufficient.

In the second place, the vessel armed for war by private persons is called "privateer." The character of such vessel is settled precisely, and, like her English name (privateer), indicates sufficiently under this circumstance that she is a private armed vessel—name which Mr. Wheaton gives them.—*Elements of International Law*, ii. p. 19.

Privateering is the maritime warfare which privateers are authorized to make, for their own account, against merchant vessels of the enemy by virtue of letters of marque which are issued to them by the State.

The *Sumter* is not a private vessel; is not the private property of unconnected individuals—of private ship-owners. She, therefore, cannot be a "privateer;" she can only be a ship-of-war or ship of the State armed for cruising. Thus the *Sumter* is designated, in the extract annexed from *Harper's Weekly*, under the name of "rebel ship-of-war."

Thirdly. It cannot be held, as you propose in your despatch of the 9th of this month, that all vessels carrying the Confederate flag are, without distinction, to be considered as privateers, because the principles of the law of nations, as well as the examples of history, require that the rights of war be accorded to those States.

The Government of the United States holds that it should consider the States of the South as rebels.

It does not pertain to the King's Government to pronounce upon the subject of a question which is entirely within the domain of the internal regulations of the United States; neither has it to inquire whether, in virtue of the Constitution which rules that republic, the States of the South can separate from the central Government, and whether they ought then, aye or no, to be reputed as rebels during the first period of the difficulties.

But I deem it my duty to observe to you, sir, that, according to the doctrines of the best publicists, such as Vattel, iii., c. 18, sect. 292, and M. de Rayneval, *Droit de la Nation et des Gens*, i., p. 161, there is a notable difference between rebellion and civil war. "When," says Vattel, "a party is formed in the state, which no longer obeys its sovereign, and is strong enough to make head against him, or in a republic, when the nation divides into two opposing parties, and on one side and the other take up arms, then it is civil war." It is, therefore, the latter which now agitates the great American republic.

But, in this case, the rights of war must be accorded to the two parties.

Let me be allowed to cite here only two passages; the one from Vattel (ii., c. 4, sect. 56), which reads: "Whenever affairs reach to civil war the ties of political association are broken, or at least suspended, between the sovereign and his people. They may be considered as two distinct powers; and, since one and the other are independent of any foreign authority, no one has the right to judge between them. Each of them may be right. It follows, then, that the two parties may act as having equal right." The other passage is taken from the work of a former minister, himself belonging to the United States, Mr. Wheaton, who, in his *Elements of International Law*, c. 1, p. 35 (Am. ed., part 1, p. 32), thus expresses himself: "If the foreign state would observe absolute neutrality in the face of dissensions which disturb another state, it must accord to both belligerent parties all the rights which war accords to public enemies, such as the right of blockade, and the right of intercepting merchandize contraband of war."

As for historic evidence, it will suffice to call to mind from ancient times the struggle of the United Provinces with Spain, and from modern date

the war between the Hispano-American colonies and the mother country since 1810, the war of independence of Greece from Turkey since 1821, &c.

It will, doubtless, be useless to recollect, on this occasion, that the principle to see only insurgents in the States of the south, having neither sovereignty nor rights of war, nor of peace, was put forward by England, at the breaking out of the war of independence of the Anglo-American colonies, in the vindictory memoir published by the British Court in 1778 in answer to the exposition of the motives for the conduct of France, which had lately signed, on the 6th day of February of that year, a treaty with the United States, in which they were regarded as an independent nation.

But the court of Versailles set out from other principles, which she developed in "Observations on the Vindictory Memoir of the Court of London," saying, among other things: "It is sufficient to the justification of his Majesty that the colonies had established their independence not merely by a solemn declaration, but also in fact, and had maintained it against the efforts of the mother country."

Existing circumstances seem to present the same characteristics: and if it is desired to treat the States of the south as rebels, and accuse them of felony, there might here be cited as applicable to the actual conduct of the United States towards the Confederates the following remark of the court of Versailles: "In advancing this proposition (that the possession of independence, of which the French cabinet said the Americans were in the enjoyment in 1778, was a veritable felony), the English Minister had, without doubt, forgotten the course he had himself taken towards the Americans from the publication of the declaration of independence. It is remembered that the creatures of the court constantly called upon the rebellion vengeance and destruction. However, notwithstanding all their clamours, the English Minister abstained, after the declaration of independence, from prosecuting the Americans as rebels; he observed, and still observes towards them, the rules of war usual among independent nations. American prisoners have been exchanged through cartels," &c.

The rights of war cannot, then, in the opinion of the King's Government, be refused to the Confederate States; but I hasten to add that the recognition of these rights do not import in favour of such States recognition of their sovereignty.

"Foreign nations," says M. Martens (*Précis du Droit des Gens*, 1, viii., c. 3, sect. 264), "cannot refuse to consider as lawful enemies those who are empowered by their actual government, whatever that may be. This is not recognition of its legitimacy."

This last recognition can only spring from express and official declaration, which no one of the Cabinets of Europe has thus far made.

Finally, and in the last place, I permit myself here to cite the example of the American privateer *Paul Jones*.

This vessel, considered as a pirate by England, had captured two of his Britannic Majesty's ships in October, 1779. She took them into the Texel, and remained there more than two months, notwithstanding the representations of Mr. York, ambassador of Great Britain at the Hague, who considered the asylum accorded to such privateer (pirate as he called it in his memoir to the States General of 21st March, 1780) as directly contrary to treaties, and even to the ordinances of the government of the republic.

Mr. York demanded that the English vessels should be released.

The States General refused the restitution of the prizes.

The United States, whose belligerent rights were not recognized by England, enjoyed at that period the same treatment in the ports of the republic of the United Provinces as the Netherlands authorities have now accorded to the Confederate States.

If the Cabinet of the Hague cannot, therefore, by force of the preceding, class all the vessels of the Confederate States armed for war in the category of privateers, much less can it treat them as pirates (as you call them in your despatch of the 12th of this month), or consider the *Sumter* as engaged in a filibustering expedition—"engaged in a piratical expedition against the commerce of the United States"—as it reads in your communication of the 2nd of September.

Here, again, historic antecedents militate in favour of the opinion of the Netherlands Government.

Is there need, in fact, to remind you that at the outset of the war of American independence, in 1778, the English refused to recognize American privateers as lawful enemies, under the pretence that the letters of marque which they bore did not emanate from the sovereign, but from revolted subjects?

But Great Britain soon had to desist from this pretension, and to accord international treatment to the colonists in arms against the mother country.

The frankness with which the King's Government has expressed its convictions in relation to the course to be taken towards the States of the south will, without doubt, be estimated at its just value by the Government of the United States.

It will perceive therein the well-settled intention to preserve in safety the rights of neutrality; to lay down for itself and to follow a line of conduct equally distant from feebleness as from too great adventurousness, but suitable for maintaining intact the dignity of the State.

The Government of the Netherlands desire to observe, on the occasion of existing affairs in America, a perfect and absolute neutrality, and to abstain therefore from the slightest act of partiality.

According to Hubner (*Saisie de Bâtiments Neutres*), "neutrality consists in absolute inaction relative to war, and in exact and perfect impartiality manifested by facts in regard to the belligerents, as far as this impartiality has relation to the war, and to the direct and immediate measures for its prosecution."

"Neutrality," says Azuni (*Droits Maritimes*), "is the continuation in a state of peace of a power which, when war is kindled between two or more nations, absolutely abstains from taking any part in the contest."

But if the proposition be admitted that all the vessels of the Confederate States armed for war should be considered *prima facie* as privateers, would there not be a flagrant inequality between the treatment and the favours accorded to vessels of war of the United States and the vessels of the Confederate States, which have not for the moment a navy properly so called?

This evidently would be giving proof of partiality incompatible with real duties of neutrality. The only question is to determine with exactitude the distinctive characteristics between a privateer and a ship-of-war, although this may be difficult of execution. Thus is ignored that which Count Reventlon, envoy of the King of Denmark at Madrid, drew attention to in 1782, that there exists among the maritime powers regulations or conventions between sovereigns, which oblige them to equip their vessels in a certain manner, that they may be held veritably armed for war.

You express also, in your despatch of September 2, the hope that the Netherlands Government will do justice to your reclamation, grounding yourself on the tenor of treaties existing between the Netherlands and the United States, on the principles of the law of nations, and, finally, upon the assurances you have received from the King's Government.

Amidst all the European Powers there are few who have better defended the rights of neutrals, and have suffered more in this noble cause than Denmark; and one of her greatest statesmen of the close of the last century, Count Bernstorff, has been able to declare with justice, in his memoir of July 28, 1793, a document that will long continue to be celebrated, "A neutral Power fulfils all its duties by never departing from the most strict impartiality, nor from the avowed meaning of its treaties."

I have endeavoured, sir, to show, in what precedes, that the Government of the Netherlands has fulfilled conscientiously its first duty, and will adhere faithfully thereto.

The Cabinet of the Hague does not observe, and will not observe, less religiously the tenor of treaties.

The treaty of the 19th of January, 1839, and the additional convention of the 26th of August, 1852, only relate to commerce and navigation; the only treaties that can be invoked in the present case are those of the 8th of October, 1782.

I do not think it my duty to enter here upon a discussion of principles on the question of deciding whether these treaties can still be considered as actually in force, and I will not take advantage of the circumstances that the Cabinet of Washington has implicitly recognized, by the very reclamation which is the object of your despatches, that the treaties of 1782 cannot any longer be invoked as the basis of international relations between the Netherlands and the United States.

I will only take the liberty of observing to you, sir, that the execution of the stipulations included in those diplomatic acts would be far, in the present circumstances, from being favourable to the Government of the republic.

In fact, we should, in this case, admit to our ports privateers with their prizes, which could even be sold there by virtue of article 5 of the before-cited convention of 1782, on rescues.

It would, perhaps, be objected that the treaty of 1782, having been concluded with the United States of America, could not be invoked by a part of the Union which had seceded from the central Government, and I do not dissent from the opinion that this thorny question of public law would give rise, should the case occur, to very serious difficulties.

But we cannot lose sight of the fact that the treaty spoken of was concluded, even before the recognition of the United States by England, in 1783, with the oldest members of the republic, among others, to wit, with Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, and that those States actually figure among the secessionists.

In 1782 the republic of North America was only a simple confederation of States, remaining sovereign, united only for common defence (*Staaten-bund*), and it is only since the establishment of the constitution of the 17th of September, 1787, that the pact which binds together the United States received the character which is attributed to it by Mr. Wheaton, also (*Elements of International Law*), of a perfect union between all the members as one people under one government, federal and supreme (*Bundestaat*),

"a commonwealth," according to Mr. Motley, in his pamphlet, *Causes of the Civil War in America*, p. 71.

In view of this fundamental difference between the present character of the Government of the United States and that of the party contracting the treaty of 1782, it would be difficult to refuse in equity the privilege of the secessionist States to avail themselves of it.

It will, therefore, not escape your penetration that it is preferable, as well for the Netherlands as for the Cabinet of Washington, to leave the treaty above-mentioned at rest, and that, in excluding privateers from its ports the Government of the Netherlands has acted only in the interests of the Government of the United States, to which it is bound by feelings of a friendship which dates even from the time of the existence of the republic of the United Provinces, and which the King's Government will make every effort to maintain and consolidate more and more.

According to the law of nations, the cases in which the neutrality of a power is more advantageous to one party than to the other do not affect or impair it; it suffices that the neutrality be perfect and strictly observed. The Government of the Netherlands has not departed from it, therefore, in denying admission to the ports of his Majesty's territories to privateers, although at first glance this determination is unfavourable to the Southern States.

The difficulties which have actually arisen, and which may be renewed hereafter, the desire to avoid as much as possible everything that could compromise the good understanding between the Governments of the United States and the Netherlands, impose on me the last obligation to examine with scrupulous attention if the maintenance of the general principles which I have had the honour to develop might not in some particular cases impair the attitude of neutrality which the Cabinet of the Hague desires to observe. If, for example, we had room to believe that the *Sumter*, or any other vessel of one of the two belligerent parties, sought to make of Curaçoa, or any other port in his Majesty's dominions, the base of operations against the commerce of the adverse party, the Government of the Netherlands would be the first to perceive that such acts would be a real infraction, not merely of the neutrality we wish to observe, but also of the right of sovereignty over the territorial seas of the State; the duty of a neutral State being to take care that vessels of the belligerent parties commit no act of hostility within the limits of its territory, and do not keep watch in the ports of its dominion to course from them after vessels of the adverse party.

Instructions on this point will be addressed to the governors of the Netherlands colonial possessions.

I flatter myself that the preceding explanations will suffice to convince the Federal Government of the unchangeable desire of that of the Netherlands to maintain a strict neutrality, and will cause the disappearance of the slightest trace of misunderstanding between the Cabinets of the Hague and of Washington.

Accept, &c.,

DE ZUYLEN DE NIEVELT.

The *Sumter* made her appearance again and again at other ports belonging to the Netherlands; but, in consequence of repeated complaints, the Dutch Minister informed Mr. Pike that steps had been taken to prevent such privateers entering any of the ports of the Netherlands.

TURKEY.

A despatch was sent to that power at Constantinople on the same subject.

SWEDEN.

Mr. Angel informed Mr. Seward that the Swedish law was very strict against the violation of the rights of neutrals, and there was no apprehension that any of the ports of Sweden or Norway would be prostituted to the wicked purpose of fitting out privateers.

PORTUGAL.

A correspondence was opened with the American minister in Lisbon on the subject of the declaration of Paris. A decree was issued in Portugal prohibiting the aid of privateers.

PERU, NICARAGUA, EGYPT, CHILI, VENEZUELA, HAWAIIAN ISLANDS,
AND JAPAN.

Despatches on the same subject were forwarded to the American ministers in the above countries.

BRIGANDAGE IN ITALY.

Papers relating to Brigandage in Italy.

ON the 18th December, 1862, Earl Russell received from Mr. Odo Russell, from Rome, dated November 24, informing him that the Bourbon Committee had lately sent a further detachment of 260 men to join Tristani's band on the frontier. They were well armed, and wore blue overcoats and red trowsers, so as to look like French soldiers at a distance, and thereby deceive the Italian outposts and patrols. The men enlisted were chiefly Bavarians, Belgians, and Spaniards. Tristani's head-quarters were, according to circumstances, either at Santa Francesca or at Strangolagalli, and he draws his rations and supplies from Veroli. It was difficult to understand for what object the Bourbon Committee continued to keep up and organize these useless bands of foreigners, who, beyond annoying the inhabitants of the Neapolitan frontiers, have achieved no other result than to discredit the cause of King Francis II.

And on the 27th December, 1862, Earl Russell sent the following despatch to Earl Cowley, in Paris :—

Foreign Office, December 27, 1862.

MY LORD,—Her Majesty's Government have freely and candidly expressed their opinion to the Government of the Emperor respecting the French occupation of Rome. Her Majesty's Government have no desire to pursue that argument further for the mere purpose of controversy. But upon a question closely connected with the French occupation of Rome, her Majesty's Government must, in justice to the interests of Italy and of Europe, call upon the French Government to interfere with the Pope's advisers. The Pope himself, with the benevolence which is characteristic of him, has always held that his temporal dominion ought to be a territory

free from foreign quarrels and sanguinary conflicts. In this spirit, in 1848, he declared, in his allocution of April 29, that he would take no part in the war of Italian independence. The passage alluded to is as follows:—"It is wholly abhorrent from our counsels, seeing that we, although unworthy, discharge on earth the office of Him who is the author of peace and lover of charity, and agreeably to the duty of our supreme apostleship, regard and embrace, with equal paternal earnestness of love, all tribes, peoples, nations."

In the same spirit, when the bishops of the Roman Catholic communion from all parts of the world went to Rome, in the course of this present year, they described Rome, in an address to the Pope, as the seat of a temporal authority, independent of any other; "the centre, as it were, of universal concord; a place where no human ambition breathes; where no one ever intrigues for territorial dominion." They remind the Pope of his own words, that "it is by a special disposition of Divine Providence that the Roman Pontiff, established by Christ the centre and chief of His whole Church, possesses a temporal power."

If the French army at Rome protected a Power thus holy, religious, and charitable, the evils of the French occupation would be in some degree mitigated. But there is a long distance between the theory thus stated and the existing fact. The political banditti who infest the southern provinces of Italy have their head-quarters at Rome. They constantly issue from haunts rendered secure for them by the cover of the French flag, to destroy whole villages, and to murder the peaceful farmers of the south. A detachment of 260 men lately went from Rome, well armed, and clothed in blue overcoats and red trousers, in order that they might look like French soldiers, and thereby deceive the Italian outposts and patrols. If such detachments of robbers were to be sent from Switzerland into Lombardy, the Italian Government would at once protest, and the Swiss Republic would at once put an end to such an unfriendly proceeding. At Rome, however, things are done in a different way; and the high dignitaries about the Pope's person, as well as his illustrious guest the late King of Naples, are believed by the world in general to be the instigators of these incursions. It is obvious that if the Roman Government were really independent, it would be at once called to account by the King of Italy for these aggressive and unjustifiable proceedings, and would not venture to disregard his just and well-founded remonstrances.

The continuance of these barbarous outrages is, therefore, an evil entirely owing to the French occupation of Rome; and it would cease at once if proper orders were given by the French Minister of War to the general commanding the French troops in the Roman territory. The Minister of War has but to say peremptorily, "Let brigandage cease," and the Roman banditti would be extinguished in a fortnight.

Her Majesty's Government cannot refrain from submitting to that of France that the Government of the Emperor ought either to leave the Roman State to settle its own quarrels, and to atone for its own misdeeds, or it ought to insist upon a behaviour on the part of the Pope which shall be peaceable towards his neighbours, and in conformity with that impartial love and universal charity professed in words by Pius IX., but utterly disregarded in action by his minister. Your Excellency may read this despatch to M. Drouyn de Lhuys.—I am, &c.

(Signed)

RUSSELL.

In answer to this despatch, Earl Cowley wrote, on the 30th December,

1862, that M. Drouyn de Lhuys had no objection to make to the general principles laid down in Earl Russell's despatch, and that the Prince de la Tour d'Auvergne had gone to Rome with very strong instructions upon this important subject. He would state, further, that the opinions of the French Government had been conveyed to the Pope, to Cardinal Antonelli, and to the ex-King of Naples, in a manner which he could not but hope would produce a proper effect. There was, no doubt, great exaggeration as to the extent of the evil complained of; but evil, he could not deny, there was; and he would take this opportunity of renewing, in pressing language, the instructions with which M. de la Tour d'Auvergne was, as he had stated, already furnished.

On the 28th January, 1863, Earl Russell received a letter from Mr. Odo Russell, dated Rome, January 14, in answer to complaints made by General de Montebello, for the information he had sent, which proved incorrect, as they reflected on his military administration of Rome.

Mr. Russell told the general how much he regretted that any statements of his should have been a cause of annoyance to him; that he had made them on what he considered good authority; and that similar statements formerly made by him, had been entirely confirmed by his predecessor, General de Goyon. The means employed, he said, by the Legitimist Committee, to send arms and men to the frontier, had formerly been as follows:—The men were sent singly on foot to certain convents on the frontier, while old French uniforms were bought from the Jews in the Ghetto, and as well as arms and other equipments, carried bit by bit to isolated vignas in the Campagna, and at night packed in old herring casks, and gradually conveyed to the frontier, where they were distributed to the men already there assembled. The general said he had entirely put an end to such proceedings; besides which, he now had the full co-operation of the Papal Government to put down brigandage; and that he could assure me, on his honour, that armed men could no longer leave Rome and proceed to the frontier without his knowledge; and that he had, therefore, been misinformed, and the statements sent home by him, and communicated by Earl Cowley to M. Drouyn de Lhuys, would prove to be incorrect. Mr. Russell replied that he was glad to hear from him that he was so successful in putting down brigandage, and he hoped he would occasionally give him some correct information on these subjects, as his predecessor, General de Goyon, had done. Count de Montebello replied that he would do so; and that for the present he could tell him that Tristani's band was reduced to about sixty men, and would probably soon be altogether disbanded and destroyed; that in Rome he had put a stop to all communication between Tristani and his employers; and that he had lately seized and confiscated, in a Roman printing establishment, about 2000 copies of a printed proclamation calling upon the Neapolitans to rise and join their legitimate sovereign, King Francis II.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

25° & 26° VICTORIÆ, 1862.

SERIES B.—DIPLOMACY AND WAR.

UNITED KINGDOM.

OFFICERS' COMMISSIONS.

CAP. IV.—*An Act to enable Her Majesty to issue Commissions to the Officers of Her Majesty's Land Forces and Royal Marines, and to Adjutants and Quartermasters of Her Militia and Volunteer Forces, without affixing Her Royal Sign Manual thereto.* (11th August, 1862.)

MUTINY.

CAP. V.—*An Act for punishing Mutiny and Desertion, and for the better Payment of the Army and their Quarters.* (11th August, 1862.)

ROYAL MARINE FORCES.

CAP. VI.—*An Act for the regulation of Her Majesty's Royal Marine Forces while on Shore.* (11th August, 1862.)

SANDHURST VESTING.

CAP. XXXIII.—*An Act for vesting in Her Majesty's principal Secretary of State for the War Department the Lands of the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, and for completing certain exchanges of Lands now or late of the said College.* (7th July, 1862.)

ARTILLERY RANGES.

CAP. XXXVI.—*An Act to appropriate certain portions of Land lying between High and Low Water Mark, situate in the Parishes of Shoebury and Wakering, in the County of Essex, as Ranges for the use and practice of Artillery.* (17th July, 1862.)

RIFLE VOLUNTEER GROUNDS.

CAP. XLI.—*An Act for amending the Rifle Volunteer Grounds Act, 1860.* (17th July, 1862.)

NAVAL AND VICTUALLING STORES.

CAP. LXIV.—*An Act for the better Protection of Her Majesty's Naval and Military Stores.* (29th July, 1862.)

The Admiralty, or their contractors, may apply marks in naval or mili-
[451]

tary stores; and if any person apply the same in any naval store contrary to this provision, he shall be guilty of misdemeanour. The obliteration of marks, with intent to conceal her Majesty's property stores, to be felony. Knowingly receiving, possessing, keeping, and selling marked stores to be a misdemeanour. A knowledge that the stores are marked is presumed against dealers or persons employed in yards, but to be proved in other cases. No unauthorized person to creep, sweep, or dredge for stores within 100 yards of dockyards. The police may stop suspected persons. When information is given that there is reasonable cause to believe that some stores are in a house, the justice of the peace may issue a search warrant to a constable. Dealers in marine stores and in old metals to account for the possession of stores found on search.

SURRENDER OF CRIMINALS.

CAP. LXX.—*An Act for giving effect to a Convention between Her Majesty and the King of Denmark for the mutual Surrender of Criminals.* (29th July, 1862.)

Certain offenders to be apprehended on requisition of an ambassador of the King of Denmark. The convention specifying such to be persons accused or convicted of murder, comprehending the crimes of assassination, parricide, infanticide, and poisoning, or attempts to commit murder, or of forgery (comprehending the counterfeiting of bank-notes, or public securities, or money), or of fraudulent bankruptcy, committed within the jurisdiction of the requiring party. The convention to apply to the colonies or possessions of both contracting parties.

MILITIA BALLOTS.

CAP. LXXVII.—*An Act to suspend the making of Lists and the Ballots for the Militia of the United Kingdom.* (7th August, 1862.)

FORTIFICATIONS.

CAP. LXXVIII.—*An Act for providing a further sum towards defraying the expenses of constructing Fortifications for the protection of the Royal Arsenal and Dockyards and the Ports of Dover and Portland, and of creating a central Arsenal.* (7th August, 1862.)

DISEMBODIED MILITIA.

CAP. LXXX.—*An Act to defray the charge of the Pay, Clothing, and contingent and other expenses of the disembodied Militia in Great Britain and Ireland; to grant Allowances, in certain cases, to subaltern Officers, Adjutants, Paymasters, Quartermasters, Surgeons, Assistant Surgeons, and Surgeons' Mates of the Militia; and to authorize the employment of Non-commissioned Officers.* (7th August, 1862.)

AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE.

CAP. XC.—*An Act for Rectifying a clerical error in the Act of the present Session, chap. 40, with respect to the African Slave Trade Treaty.* (7th August, 1862.)

CAP. XL.—*An Act to carry into effect the Treaty between Her Majesty and the United States of America, for the suppression of the African Slave Trade.* (17th July, 1862.)

ECCLESIASTICAL COMMISSION.

Fourteenth General Report of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England.

THE Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England submit, in accordance with the 26th section of the Act 13 and 14 Vict. c. 94, and the 10th section of the Act 17 and 18 Vict. c. 116, a report of their proceedings for the year preceding the 1st of November, 1861.

An abstract of the accounts of the commissioners for the same period is annexed, in compliance with the directions of the firstly-named Act.

During the year to which this report relates, the estates of the see of Worcester have become vested in the commissioners, under the Act 23 and 24 Vict. c. 124. Schemes have been passed in accordance with the provisions of the Act 23 and 24 Vict. c. 124, for placing the Archbishop of York and the Bishop of Durham, and their successors, in possession of permanent estates sufficient to produce the amount fixed by Act of Parliament as the incomes of their respective sees, whereupon the remainder of the estates of those sees became absolutely vested in the commissioners for purposes of the common fund.

The dean and chapter of York have agreed to accept certain real estates in lieu of the income agreed upon the commutation of their estates, to be paid to them by the commissioners pending the provision of a permanent estate. In the course of the year to which this report relates, the deans and chapters of Winchester and Salisbury have, in consideration of money payments, transferred to the commissioners certain portions of their capitular estates.

The apportionment of episcopal patronage contemplated by the proposition No. 40 of the 1st section of the Act 6 and 7 Will. 4, c. 77, has been completed, a plan for settling the patronage of the several bishops holding Welsh sees having been carried into effect by means of a scheme. Schemes have been passed for authorizing the sale of certain sums of stock belonging to the dean and chapter of Norwich and the dean and chapter of Westminster respectively, and for appropriating the proceeds of the same towards improving the precincts of the cathedral church of Norwich and of the collegiate church of Westminster.

In pursuance of the Acts 3 and 4 Vict. c. 113, 4 and 5 Vict. c. 39, and 6 and 7 Vict. c. 77, a scheme has been passed for regulating the incomes of the dean and canons of the cathedral church of Bangor, and for permanently annexing a canonry residentiary in the same cathedral church to each of the archdeaconries of Bangor and Merioneth; and by another scheme the income of the archdeaconry of Stafford, in the diocese of Lichfield, has been augmented by a grant out of the common fund.

A scheme has been passed under the powers of the Act 3 and 4 Vict., c. 113, for uniting prospectively the sinecure rectory of St. Florence, in the county of Pembroke, with the vicarage of St. Florence dependent thereon, and for constituting the united benefice a rectory with cure for souls.

By the passing of the Act 24 and 25 Vict. c. 116, the share of the divisible revenues heretofore received by the commissioners in respect of the seventh and eighth canonries suspended in her Majesty's free chapel of St. George in Windsor, has been withdrawn from their common fund, and

specifically appropriated for the benefit of the military knights on the upper or royal foundation of the Castle at Windsor, and to the augmentation of the endowment of the vicarage of the royal borough of Windsor, and the perpetual curacy of the district church of the Holy Trinity in Windsor.

The commissioners have continued to effect enfranchisements of estates vested in them, on the principles stated in their twelfth report, and the instances continue extremely few in which the price required by the commissioners has been the subject of prolonged discussion and of ultimate refusal.

In pursuance of the provisions of the Act 17 and 18 Vict., c. 116, a schedule is annexed of all sales of reversions and purchases of leasehold interests effected during the year preceding the 1st of November last, and also of all cases of refusal, with the special reasons for the same. A schedule of the cases in which local claims on estates which have been enfranchised are created by the Acts 3 and 4 Vict. c. 113, and 17 and 18 Vict. c. 116, in compliance with the directions of the secondly-mentioned Act, is annexed to this report. The same schedule shows the period at which it was estimated that the previously subsisting lease or grant, under which such estates were held, would in each case have expired.

Assignments of the patronage of certain benefices have also been effected under the provisions of the Acts 3 and 4 Vict. c. 113, 4 and 5 Vict. c. 39, and 6 and 7 Vict. c. 37, in consideration of the augmentation of the incomes of such benefices. Certain benefices have also been augmented out of the incomes of other benefices, in accordance with the provisions of the Acts 3 and 4 Vict. c. 113, 4 and 5 Vict. c. 39, and 17 and 18 Vict. c. 84.

The commissioners have during the past year made temporary grants to certain benefices within the parish of Manchester, under the provisions of "The Parish of Manchester Division Act, 1850."

The commissioners have in the past year taken steps to ascertain the annual amount immediately required to meet the claims of places where property is now actually in possession, and are continuously dealing with such claims.

Local claims which prior to the Act of 1860 attached only to tithe, or land allotted in lieu of tithe, were by that Act extended to the whole of the estates vested in the commissioners (not purchased by them), to the proceeds of all the transactions under the Church Estates Act of 1851, and practically to all the estates of bishops and chapters; consequently, the fund capable of appropriation to the general claims for the relief of spiritual destitution is restricted to that portion of the property vested in the commissioners which may remain after local claims as so extended shall have been satisfied. The commissioners have, however, come to the conclusion that they may for the present year appropriate the sum of 100,000*l.* for general distribution, according to the rules adopted by the board for such purpose; and at the same time may increase the permanent charge on the common fund to the extent of 20,000*l.* per annum, in discharge of a portion of the local claims which, under the practice of the board hitherto, would not be dealt with until the expiration of the leases under which the property was held. They have decided that such claims shall be considered in the order in which they have accrued by the vesting of the estates in the commission, and only where the present interest of the commissioners in the estate shall be sufficient to raise the income to the full amount of augmen-

tation to which the living may be entitled under the regulations which the commissioners may see fit to make.

The number of benefices permanently augmented by the commissioners, exclusive of new districts, mentioned below, amounted on the 1st November last to 1100, and the grants made by the commissioners in respect of those benefices exceed the sum of 61,300*l.* per annum.

Under "The New Parishes Acts" five districts have been constituted since the last report. In these cases the endowments have been provided either from private sources or out of the revenues of the mother church, or by the commissioners in consideration of local claims upon property vested in them, and situate or arising within the parish from which the districts so endowed were respectively taken.

The number of districts constituted by the commissioners under "The New Parishes Acts" up to the 1st November last, amounted to 288, and their aggregate population to 922,692; and of those districts, 258 have been already provided with churches and have become "new parishes" under the 15th section of the Act 6 & 7 Vict. c. 37, and the incumbents thereof respectively entitled to an annual income of not less than 150*l.* per annum, besides the surplice fees and dues arising within their several parishes. The annual payment by the commissioners in respect of such districts and new parishes now exceeds 37,640*l.*, and is subject to further increase from time to time as new churches are consecrated.

The total number, therefore, of benefices and districts augmented and endowed by the commissioners amounts to 1388, and the total permanent charge upon the "common fund," inclusive of grants in respect of benefactions paid to them, exceeds the sum of 98,900*l.* per annum. In addition to these charges upon the "common fund," the commissioners have annexed, in certain cases, land and tithe rent-charge, the value of which may be estimated at 9600*l.* per annum. The common fund is further charged with 18,000*l.* per annum, payable to the Governors of Queen Anne's bounty under arrangements made in the year 1843, which enabled the commissioners to make immediate provision for additional cures, and which are fully set forth in their sixth general report.

Orders under the 11th section of the Act 19 and 20 Vict. c. 104., authorizing the performance, in fourteen churches or chapels to which districts belong, of the offices contemplated by that section, have been issued by the commissioners during the same period. Under "The Church Building Acts" the following arrangements have been made by the commissioners, during the past year, viz.:—Sixty-three districts have been constituted or assigned under the designation of either, 1. district chapelries, 2. consolidated chapelries, 3. particular districts, 4. district under "The Parish of Manchester Division Act, 1850." Declarations of the patronage of six churches have been also issued. In six cases a new church has been substituted for the existing parish church. Scales of pew rents have been fixed for six churches. One hundred and sixty-two conveyances of sites for churches, burial-grounds, and parsonage-houses respectively have been accepted.

The balance-sheet of the commissioners for the year ended 31st October, 1861, showed on the debit side—

To common fund account:—Balances at credit thereof, viz.—balance of consolidated 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 156,857*l.* 16*s.* 9*d.*; balance of reduced 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 264,617*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.*; balance of new 3*l.* per cent.

annuities, 4,473*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*; balance of exchequer bills, 3100*l.*; balance, exclusive of Government securities, cash, 685,661*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.* To bishoprick and chapter commuted estates accounts (land, &c., sales and purchases):—Balances at credit thereof, viz.—balances of consolidated 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 28,877*l.* 3*s.* 1*d.*; balances of new 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 359*l.* 17*s.* 3*d.*; balances, exclusive of Government securities, cash, 326,587*l.* 11*s.* 10*d.* To benefaction accounts:—Balances at credit thereof, viz.—balances of consolidated 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 1,500*l.*; balances, exclusive of Government securities, cash, 76,915*l.* 0*s.* 10*d.* To Gally Knight fund:—Balance at credit thereof, cash, 18,167*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.* To Maltby Fund:—Balance at credit thereof, viz.—balance of exchequer bills, 11,000*l.*; balance, exclusive of Government securities, cash, 461*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.* To trust and special accounts:—Balances at credit thereof, viz.—balances of consolidated 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 57,875*l.* 15*s.* 11*d.*; balances of reduced 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 30,767*l.* 5*s.*; balances of new 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 3907*l.* 18*s.* 8*d.*; balances of exchequer bills, 6200*l.*; balances, exclusive of Government securities, cash, 64,162*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.*; Government securities, total, 569,537*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*; cash, 1,171,955*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.*

And, on the credit side:—By Government securities, viz.:—Consolidated 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 245,110*l.* 15*s.* 9*d.*; reduced 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 295,384*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.*; new 3*l.* per cent. annuities, 8,741*l.* 9*s.* 3*d.*; exchequer bills, 20,300*l.* By cash at the Bank of England, 22,248*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.*; by mortgages, 42,033*l.*; by episcopal and capitular leaseholds account—balance at debit thereof, 255,150*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.*; by land, &c., sale and purchase account—balance at debit thereof, 336,706*l.* 14*s.*; by bishoprick and chapter commuted estates accounts (land, &c., sales and purchases)—balances at debit thereof, 178,209*l.* 0*s.* 9*d.*; by bishoprick and chapter commuted estates accounts (exclusive of sales and purchases)—balances at debit thereof, 328,579*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.*; by trust and special accounts, balances at debit thereof, 694*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.*; by rental, &c., of estates account—balance at debit thereof, 8,333*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.* Total, Government securities, 569,537*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.*; cash, 1,171,955*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.*

BILLS WHICH HAVE NOT PASSED INTO LAW.

ASSENT TO USE OF PRAYER BOOK.

A Bill intituled an Act to amend the Law respecting the Declaration of Assent to the Use of the Book of Common Prayer required of Ministers and others of the United Church of England and Ireland. (Lord Ebury.) 6th February, 1862. (1.)

WHEREAS under the Act of Uniformity, it is required of every person put into any ecclesiastical benefice, that in the place of public worship belonging thereto, within a certain time, he shall publicly read the morning and evening prayers appointed to be read by the Book of Common Prayer, and after such reading, shall publicly before the congregation there assembled, declare his unfeigned assent and consent to the use of all things therein

contained and prescribed, according to the form in the said Act appointed: And whereas under the same Act it is required of every governor or head of certain colleges or halls, that he shall, within a time and in a place, and in the presence of persons therein mentioned, publicly subscribe unto the said book, and declare his unfeigned assent and consent unto and approbation of the same, and to the use of all the prayers, rites and ceremonies, forms and orders, therein prescribed and contained, according to the form aforesaid; And whereas, under the same Act, it is required of every person licensed, assigned, appointed, or received as a lecturer to preach as therein mentioned, that the first time he preacheth (before his sermon) he shall publicly read the common prayers and service in and by the said book appointed to be read for that time of the day, and then and there publicly declare his assent unto and approbation of the said book and to the use of all the said prayers, rites and ceremonies, forms and orders, according to the form aforesaid; and also that, at such other time and in such manner as therein mentioned, he shall publicly declare his unfeigned assent and consent unto and approbation of the said book, and to the use of all the said prayers, rites and ceremonies, forms and orders, according to the form aforesaid: And whereas it is expedient that any person, so desiring, should be at liberty to declare his approbation of, and assent to, the use of the Book of Common Prayer, and, if in holy orders, to undertake for the exclusive use thereof by himself in public worship, without adopting the particular form of declaration appointed in the said Act. Be it therefore enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. It shall be lawful for every person required under the said Act to make a declaration in manner aforesaid, to do so, either according to the form aforesaid, or according to the following form, as he may think fit:—

“I A.B. do declare that the Book of Common Prayer [*stating the full title of the book*] may be lawfully used as such; [*adding, if he be in holy orders,*] and that I will myself in public prayers and in administration of the sacraments, use the form in the said book prescribed, and no other.”

2. And whereas it is expedient that any person willing to make a declaration in the form herein-before set forth should not incur the danger of being refused ordination, admission to any ecclesiastical living, or permission to execute in any place, any ecclesiastical function, on account only of his being unwilling to subscribe any article relating to the Book of Common prayer, the subscription whereof is not required of him by Act of Parliament. Be it therefore enacted as follows:—If any person who shall be required otherwise than by virtue of the Act of Uniformity to subscribe any article relating to the Book of Common Prayer shall desire, in lieu of such subscription, to make a declaration in the form herein-before set forth, he shall be at liberty to so do; and in case he shall offer so to do, it shall not be lawful for any person, by virtue or under colour of any authority whatsoever, to prevent him from exercising such liberty, or to refuse him ordination as deacon or priest, or admission to any ecclesiastical living, or permission to execute in any place any ecclesiastical function, on account only of his being unwilling to subscribe such article.

3. Nothing herein contained shall be taken to give any person any authority to require subscription to any article relating to the Book of

Common Prayer further or otherwise than he would by law have had if this Act had not been passed.

4. In this Act the term "the Act of Uniformity" shall mean,—As to ENGLAND, the Act of the fourteenth year of King Charles II. (chap. 4), intituled "an Act for the uniformity of public Prayers and administration of sacraments and other rites and ceremonies, and for establishing the form of making, ordaining, and consecrating bishops, priests, and deacons in the Church of England."—As to IRELAND, the Act of the Parliament of Ireland passed in the session of the seventeenth and eighteenth years of King Charles II. (chap. 6), intituled, "an Act for the uniformity of public Prayers and administration of Sacraments and other rites and ceremonies, and for establishing the form of making, ordaining, and consecrating bishops, priests, and deacons in the Church of Ireland."

And the term "The Book of Common Prayer" shall mean,—As to ENGLAND, the book annexed to the first-mentioned Act, and intituled, "The Book of Common Prayer and administration of the Sacraments and other rites and ceremonies of the Church, according to the use of the Church of England, together with the Psalter or Psalms of David, pointed as they are to be sung or said in Churches, and the form or manner of making, ordaining, and consecrating of bishops, priests, and deacons." As to IRELAND, the book annexed to the secondly mentioned Act, and intituled, "The Book of Common Prayer and administration of the Sacraments and other rites and ceremonies of the Church according to the use of the Church of Ireland, together with the Psalter or Psalms of David, pointed as they are to be sung or said in Churches, and the form and manner of making, ordaining, and consecrating of bishops, priests, and deacons."

ACTS OF UNIFORMITY AMENDMENT.

A Bill intituled an Act to amend the Acts of Uniformity. (Lord Ebury.)
15th May, 1862 (74.)

WHEREAS under the Acts of Uniformity made in England and Ireland respectively (14 Car. II., c. 4., and 17 and 18 Car. II., c. 6), any person put into any ecclesiastical benefice, and other persons therein described, are required each to make the following declaration:—"I A.B. do declare my unfeigned assent and consent to all and every thing contained and prescribed in and by the book intituled the Book of Common Prayer;" (the full title of that book being therein set forth). And whereas under the same Acts every person in holy orders, being the incumbent of any ecclesiastical promotion or curate's place, is also required at or before his admission to be incumbent, to subscribe before the archbishop, bishop, or ordinary the following declaration:—"I A.B. do declare that I will conform to the liturgy of the United Church of England and Ireland, as it is now by law established," and every parson, vicar or curate is further required to procure a certificate under the hand and seal of the archbishop, bishop, or ordinary, and to publicly read the same, together with the last-mentioned declaration, in his parish church where he is to officiate, in the presence of the congregation; and the other persons therein described are also required to subscribe the same declaration. And whereas it is not expedient

that any person should be required to make or subscribe both the said declarations; and the declaration secondly herein-before set forth is sufficient. Be it therefore enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. On and after the day of the feast of St. Bartholomew in the year 1862, so much of the said Acts as requires any person to make a declaration according to the form first herein-before recited shall be repealed.

2. Nothing in this Act shall affect any provision of the said Acts requiring any person to subscribe the declaration secondly herein-before recited, or to procure a certificate, or to publicly read such certificate and declaration.

3. And whereas by the said Acts it is enacted that when a sermon or lecture is to be preached, the service by the Book of Common Prayer appointed for that time of the day, shall be read by some priest or deacon in the place of worship where the sermon or lecture is to be preached, before it is preached, and that the lecturer then to preach, shall be present at the reading thereof, with an exception for university sermons or lectures. And whereas doubts have arisen whether the said enactments extend only to the case of a sermon or lecture preached by a lecturer properly so called, or extend also to other cases, including the case of a sermon preached by the incumbent of a benefice or his curate in the parish church or other place of worship of the benefice; and it is expedient to remove those doubts; be it therefore declared and enacted as follows:—the last-recited enactments shall be deemed to extend only to the case of a sermon or lecture preached by a lecturer.

BISHOPS IN HEATHEN COUNTRIES.

A Bill intituled an Act for facilitating the Appointment of Bishops for Heathen Countries. (The Lord Bishop of Oxford.) 1st July, 1862. (140.)

WHEREAS it is enacted, that before the consecration of any bishop to any see within the dominions of her most gracious Majesty, the Queen's mandate for the consecration of the said bishop shall be read: And whereas it is not expedient that such mandate should be required for the consecration of a bishop sent forth to preside over missions to heathen people in places external to the dominions of her Majesty; be it enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. That when it shall seem fit to the Archbishop of Canterbury for the time being to consecrate a bishop to officiate in heathen countries external to the dominions of her Majesty, it shall be lawful for the said archbishop to proceed canonically and according to usage to consecrate such bishop, without demanding or requiring to be read the mandate of her Majesty for such consecration.

COURTS OF THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

A Bill intituled an Act for removing Doubts as to the Powers of the Courts of the Church of Scotland, and extending the Powers of the said Courts.
(The Lord Hamilton.) 3rd July, 1862. (153.)

WHEREAS it would much conduce to the interests of religion, were ministers of parishes against whom a libel has been found relevant for alleged immoral conduct, or for alleged error in doctrine, to abstain from exercising ministerial functions until the said libel has been disposed of by final sentence; but doubts exist whether the right of the courts of the Church of Scotland to require and enjoin ministers of parishes so to abstain from ministerial functions in such circumstances, may not be liable to legal impediment, and it is desirable to remove such doubts: And whereas it is expedient to declare the said right, and farther to declare the right of the presbyteries of the said Church to make provision for supplying the ordinances of religion in any parish, where the said ordinances have ceased to be performed by the minister thereof. And whereas it is expedient to give facilities to parties in any cause before presbyteries and other church courts for obtaining the attendance of witnesses and the production of evidence in proceedings before the same; be it therefore declared and enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. Whenever any presbytery or other court of the Church of Scotland shall have found a libel relevant, charging the minister of any parish with immoral conduct or with error in doctrine, and shall have resolved to proceed to a proof the said libel, it is hereby declared and enacted that it is and shall be held to be the right of the said presbytery to pronounce a deliverance requiring and enjoining such minister to abstain from the exercise and discharge of all ministerial functions of his office as minister of the parish, until the libel shall have been fully investigated and finally disposed of; and in the event of an appeal against such deliverance, the same shall continue in force until the same shall have been recalled by the court of appeal; and the ordinances of religion in the said parish shall, so long as such deliverance is unrecalled, be administered in the same way as if the parish were vacant by the decease of the minister thereof: provided always, that nothing herein contained shall affect the right of such minister to his stipend.

2. When, in the course of any judicial process affecting the status of a minister, or on the representation of any party having interest, it has been established to the satisfaction of a presbytery, or other superior court of the church, that the minister of any parish is insane, and thereby disabled from discharging the duties of his office, it is hereby further declared and enacted that it is and shall be the right of the presbytery, unless an arrangement, for the purposes after mentioned, shall have been made on behalf of the said minister to the satisfaction of the presbytery, to appoint a qualified assistant to perform the duties of the charge until the said minister shall be enabled to resume the same, or until the parish shall be declared vacant; and at the same time to apportion and fix, by their deliverance appointing such assistant, an allowance out of the stipend not exceeding one half of the whole proceeds of the benefice, and which shall be payable so

long as such assistant shall hold and continue to act on his appointment by the presbytery; and such deliverance, when duly intimated to the heritors or others liable in payment of the stipend, shall be equivalent to a legal and completed assignation by the minister to such assistant of the portion of the stipend specified in the deliverance.

3. When, by their final sentence upon a libel, a presbytery or other church court shall suspend a minister from the discharge of the duties of his office for a term specified in the said sentence, it is hereby further declared and enacted that it is and shall be held to be the right of the presbytery to appoint a qualified assistant to discharge the said duties, and to apportion and fix an allowance to such assistant out of the stipend, not exceeding one half of the whole proceeds of the benefice, and which shall be payable so long as such assistant shall hold and continue to act on his appointment by the presbytery; and such sentence, when duly intimated to the heritors or others liable in payment of the stipend, shall be equivalent to a legal and completed assignation by the minister to such assistant of the proportion of the stipend specified in the sentence.

4. When, in any judicial process depending before a presbytery or other superior church court, such court shall have allowed a proof, it shall be competent to the parties in the cause, or any of them to whom such proof shall have been allowed, to apply to the sheriff or sheriff substitute, of the county within the bounds of which the presbytery or other superior church court shall have held their meeting, when such proof was allowed, for warrant to cite any witnesses or havers whom such party or parties may propose to examine to appear before such presbytery or other church court at a time and place to be specified in the application; and the sheriff, on production to him, along with the said application, of a duly certified extract of the deliverance allowing a proof, shall grant warrant of citation as craved, which warrant and citation following thereon, shall be held a legal warrant and citation to compel the attendance of the witnesses or havers to whom the same shall apply, in terms of such warrant and citation; and all such warrants shall have the same force and effect in any other sheriffdom as in that in which they were originally issued, the same being first indorsed by the sheriff clerk of such other sheriffdom, who is hereby required to make and date such indorsation; and such warrant and citation shall be enforceable by the same procedure or remedies as are competent in the case of a warrant granted by the sheriff for citation of witnesses or havers to appear before his own court.

5. Where in any cause depending before a presbytery, or other superior court of the church, a proof shall have been allowed, it shall be lawful and competent for such court to appoint a qualified person being an advocate, writer to the signet, solicitor before the supreme courts, or a procurator duly entered as a practitioner in any sheriff court in Scotland, of not less than three years standing, to sit with them for the purpose of dictating to the clerk of court the evidence given by the witnesses examined in the course of the proof, and the oath *de fidei administratione officii* shall be administered by the moderator to any person so appointed; and it shall be lawful and competent for such court, if it see fit, to appoint the evidence of the witnesses examined in the course of such proof to be taken down by a writer skilled in shorthand writing, to whom the oath *de fidei administratione officii* shall be administered; and the said shorthand writer shall afterwards, and within such time as may be fixed by the court, write out

in full the evidence so taken down by him in shorthand; and the extended notes, so written out, certified by the moderator and clerk of court to be correct, shall be the record of the oral evidence in the cause; provided always, that nothing herein contained shall prevent any church court, if it see fit, from taking down and recording the evidence adduced in any cause, according to the form hitherto in use.

OATHS OF ALLEGIANCE AND SUPREMACY RE-ENACTMENT.

A Bill intituled an Act to re-enact the Oaths of Allegiance and Supremacy to be taken by her Majesty's Subjects other than Roman Catholics. (Lord Stratheden.) 22nd May, 1862. (82.)

WHEREAS it is expedient to restore the oaths of allegiance and supremacy as settled by the Bill of Rights, and to require the same to be taken by her Majesty's subjects other than Roman Catholics: and whereas an Act was passed in the session of Parliament holden in the twenty-first and twenty-second years of her present Majesty, chapter 48, intituled "An Act to substitute one oath for the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, and for the relief of her Majesty's subjects professing the Jewish religion:" Be it enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. That sections one, two, three, and four of the said recited Act of her present Majesty shall be and the same are hereby repealed.

2. That instead of the oath set out in the said recited Act, and in the place of the oaths which before the passing of the said recited Act, were by law required to be taken, and taken and subscribed respectively, the following oaths of allegiance and supremacy (as set out in the Bill of Rights) shall be taken and subscribed:—

"I, A. B., do sincerely promise and swear, that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to her Majesty Queen Victoria. So help me God."

"I, A. B., do swear, that I do from my heart abhor, detest, and abjure, as impious and heretical, that damnable doctrine and position that princes excommunicated or deprived by the pope or any authority of the see of Rome may be deposed or murdered by their subjects or any other whatsoever.

"And I do declare that no foreign prince, person, prelate, state, or potentate hath or ought to have any jurisdiction, power, superiority, pre-eminence, or authority, ecclesiastical or spiritual, within this realm. So help me God."

3. Where in the oath firstly hereby appointed and set forth the name of her present Majesty is expressed, the name of the Sovereign of this kingdom for the time being, by virtue of the Act for the further limitation of the crown and better securing the rights and liberties of the subject, shall be substituted from time to time, with proper words of reference thereto.

4. The oaths hereby appointed shall be taken and subscribed in the same cases, and by and before the same persons, and at the same times and

places as the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration at the passing of the said recited Act were respectively directed to be taken and taken and subscribed ; and the taking and subscribing of the oaths hereby appointed respectively shall have the like effect as the taking and taking and subscribing respectively of the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration would have had if the said recited Act had not been passed ; and the refusal, neglect, or omission to take and subscribe the said oaths respectively hereby appointed shall be attended with the like disabilities, incapacities, penalties, liabilities, and consequences as at the passing of the said lastly recited Act were by law provided in the case of refusal, neglect, or omission to take or take and subscribe respectively the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, and all provisions at the time of the passing of the said recited Act in force shall be construed and take effect accordingly ; provided always, that no person having before the commencement of this Act, taken the oath appointed by the said recited Act shall be required to take and subscribe the oaths hereby appointed, unless and until he would have been by law required to take the said oath in case this Act had not been passed.

5. Provided always, that every person of the persuasion of the people called Quakers, and every other person now by law permitted to make his solemn affirmation or declaration instead of taking an oath, shall, instead of taking and subscribing the oaths hereby appointed respectively, make and subscribe solemn declarations respectively in the respective forms of the oaths hereby appointed, substituting the words, "solemnly, sincerely, and truly declare and affirm" for the word, "swear," and omitting the words, "So help me God;" and the making and subscribing such affirmation respectively by a person herein-before authorized to make and subscribe the same, with such omission as aforesaid, shall have the same force and effect as the taking and subscribing by other persons of the oaths respectively hereby appointed.

6. Provided also, that nothing in this Act contained shall be held to alter or affect the provisions of an Act passed in the tenth year of King George IV., chapter 7, for the relief of her Majesty's Roman Catholic subjects.

CHURCH RATES VOLUNTARY COMMUTATION.

A Bill for the Voluntary Commutation of Church Rates. (Mr. Alcock and Mr. Evans.) 14th February, 1862. (16.)

WHEREAS much litigation arises out of the present state of church rates, and there is no provision by law to enable a parish to raise a permanent fund by voluntary means in order to redeem its liability to church rates, and to obtain a discharge from all further liability, except by the costly process of obtaining a special Act of Parliament: be it enacted by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. The persons who from time to time are and shall be the charity commissioners for England and Wales, shall be the commissioners for carrying this Act into effect, and for that purpose shall be a corporation, and have perpetual succession and a common seal, under the name of "The Church

Rate Commutation Commissioners," with power to hold such real estate as hereinafter mentioned.

2. It shall be lawful for the said commissioners, on having secured to them to their satisfaction such a yearly sum as in their judgment shall be sufficient for the payment of the expenses properly payable out of the church rates of any parish or district having a separate church rate, by an award under their common seal, to declare that no church rate shall thenceforth be raised for such parish or district.

3. The yearly sum to be secured to the said commissioners for the purposes aforesaid shall be secured to them either by the investment in their names of a sum or sums in the Three per Centum Consolidated Bank Annuities, or by the grant of one or more rent-charges in fee issuing out of freehold lands.

4. It shall be lawful for the commissioners, if they shall think fit, to release any rent-charge granted or transferred to them, in consideration of the transfer into their names of a sum in the Three per Centum Consolidated Bank Annuities producing dividends equal in amount to such rent-charge, and also, if they shall think fit, to release any part or parts of the lands out of which any such rent-charge is issuing from the payment thereof, without any consideration, provided the residue of such lands shall, in their judgment, be sufficient security for such rent-charge; and in such case, the rent-charge shall be wholly chargeable on and issuing out of such residue of the lands.

5. This Act shall extend to England only.

CHURCH RATES COMMUTATION.

A Bill to establish a Charge in lieu of Church Rates, for the Commutation thereof, and to afford Facilities for the Provision of other Funds applicable to the Purposes of Church Rates. (Mr. Newdegate and Lord Robert Montague.) 14th February, 1863. (13.)

WHEREAS church-rates have for some years ceased to be made in certain parishes, and in other parishes where church-rates have been made, the levying thereof has given rise to ill-feeling and litigation; and whereas it is expedient that an annual charge upon land should be levied in lieu of church-rates, and that provision should be made for the commutation of such charge, and for the reception, holding in trust, and due application of benefactions and voluntary contributions for the purposes of church-rates, be it therefore enacted, by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords spiritual and temporal and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. After the thirty-first day of December next, after the passing of this Act, no church-rate shall be made in any parish in England or Wales, except as hereinafter mentioned.

2. In every parish where any sums of money shall, before the passing of this Act, have been legally borrowed on the security of, or otherwise become legally charged upon, or payable out of, church-rates to be made and levied in such parish, church-rates shall continue to be made and levied for the purpose of paying off such monies and the interest (if any) thereon,

until the same shall be liquidated ; and such church-rates shall be of such amount as shall ensure the liquidation of such monies in a period of not less than ten years from the passing of this Act, except under special circumstances, to be approved of by the Governors of Queen Anne's Bounty, who may authorize a longer period.

3. Any church-rate made at any time before the passing of this Act may be collected, levied, and recovered in the same way as if this Act had not been passed.

4. All lands, houses, and tenements, in respect of the occupation whereof the occupiers, but for the passing of this Act, would be liable to be assessed to the church-rate in any ecclesiastical parish in England or Wales, in which any church-rate has been made or levied at any time within seven years before the passing of this Act (except as hereafter mentioned), shall be and become, and are hereby made, subject and liable to an annual charge after the rate of twopence for every one pound sterling of the rateable value of such lands, houses, and tenements, and after the same rate for any less amount than one pound sterling of such annual value, and such charge shall be called the church charge ; but no parish shall be liable to contribute by church charge to the church charge of any other parish ; and all parishes whereof any proof is given in manner mentioned that a church-rate has, three times successively within the last seven years, been proposed to be made therein, and that the making of such rate therein has, on all of those occasions, been rejected upon a poll of the parishioners thereof duly taken on the question, shall be exempt from the church charge created by this Act, and no lands, houses, or tenements, in any such parish, shall be or become liable to such charge.

5. Churchwardens of parish claiming exemption from church charges, to give notice to clerk of the peace, and apply to sessions for order allowing exemption.

6. If at any time after the making of any order of exemption as before mentioned, one-fourth of the rated inhabitants of any parish to which such order of exemption applies shall sign and deliver to the churchwardens of such parish a notice in writing requiring them to summon a vestry meeting of the parish for the purpose of considering whether a memorial shall be adopted calling upon the justices or town council, as the case may be, to cancel the order of exemption then existing with respect to such parish, the said churchwardens shall, not sooner than four weeks nor later than six weeks after receiving such requisition, summon a vestry meeting in conformity with the terms of such requisition ; and if a memorial to the effect set forth in such requisition shall be adopted by the vestry so summoned as aforesaid, and if within fourteen days after the day of the adoption of such memorial the same shall be signed by not less than two-thirds of the ratepayers of such parish, the churchwardens shall forthwith transmit the said memorial to the clerk of the peace, and the clerk of the peace shall lay the same before the justices assembled at the quarter sessions then next ensuing, or before the town council at its next meeting (as the circumstances of the case may require) ; and if the said justices or town council (as the case may be) are satisfied that the said memorial has been duly made and signed, in accordance with the provisions of this Act, then the order of exemption made touching such parish shall be forthwith cancelled, and be and remain thenceforth of none effect, and the clerk of the peace shall forthwith notify the cancelling of such order to the governors of Queen Anne's bounty.

7. Justices, when they make the first county rate in the year, are to add the church charge, and issue precepts according to the form in the schedule to Act.

8. If no county rate is made before 30th June, the clerk of the peace is to issue precepts before 21st July, for the collection of the church charge only.

9. All guardians, overseers of the poor, and other persons by law liable to assist in the collection of a county rate in any county shall in like manner assist in the collection of the church charge, and shall collect the same with and as part of the county rate to which such charge has been added, or separately if such charge has not been added to a county rate: provided always, that a separate receipt for the church charge shall be given to every occupier; and all churchwardens and other persons having the custody of church rate books and other documents relating to the church rate shall render all necessary and reasonable assistance to all persons lawfully engaged in the collection of the church charge.

10. Every occupier of land, house, or tenement assessed to the church charge, being tenant of the same land, house, or tenement, who shall have paid the sum charged upon such land, house, or tenement, shall be entitled to deduct the amount so paid by him in respect to the rent payable to the landlord for the time being, which deduction shall be made out of the first payment thereafter to be made on account of rent, in like manner as he is entitled to deduct the amount paid by way of property tax under schedule (A.) of "the Property and Income Tax Act, 1842;" and all landlords, both mediate and immediate, their respective heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, according to their respective interests, and their respective receivers or agents, shall allow such deduction, upon the receipt of the residue of the rent, under the same penalty as that under which the landlord and others entitled to the receipt of the rent of property assessed to the property tax under schedule (A.) of the said Act are bound to allow the deduction provided for by that Act, which penalty shall in all respects be recovered and recoverable in the same manner as the penalty given by that Act.

11. The landlord of any land under lease for a term of years, the occupier whereof shall have contracted to pay and discharge all rates and dues payable in respect of such land, shall, in the event of any occupier thereof deducting from the rent thereof, any sum on account of church charge as aforesaid, be entitled to add any sum, not being larger than the sum deducted by such occupier, to the rent under such lease due from such occupier for the ensuing year, and such addition to the rent shall be held and deemed to be in all respects part thereof under such lease; provided, nevertheless, that such landlord shall not be entitled to make such addition to such rent, unless he shall have delivered a notice in writing to such tenant, stating his intention to make such addition, within one calendar month after such occupier shall have made such deduction.

12. All remedies and modes of proceeding by which the justices of the peace for any county, or the town council of any city or borough, being a county within the meaning of this Act, or any guardian or overseer of the poor of any union or parish, or any person acting under them or by their authority, can enforce payment of a county rate for any lands against any person liable to pay the same, or against the goods, chattels, and effects of such person, may be exercised by such justices of the peace, town council, guardians, overseers, or persons against any person liable to pay the church

charge for such land, whether as occupier, owner, or any mesne landlord, and against the goods, chattels, and effects of such person.

13. The county treasurer is to pay over the monies for the church charge to the treasurer of the Queen Anne's bounty, on demand. Governors to have the same powers for enforcing the payment, as the justices or town council, or may recover by any action at law.

14. The county treasurer is to serve a written notice of the amount paid by him to the Queen Anne's bounty to the churchwardens.

QUALIFICATIONS FOR OFFICES ABOLITION.

A Bill to render it unnecessary to make and subscribe certain Declarations as a Qualification for Offices and Employments. (Mr. Hadfield, Sir Morton Peto, Mr. Baines and Mr. Kershaw.) 7th February, 1862. (2.)

WHEREAS an Act was passed in the ninth year of the reign of King George IV., intituled "An Act for repealing so much of several Acts as imposes the necessity of receiving the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper as a qualification for certain offices and employments." And whereas another Act was passed in the first and second years of the reign of her present Majesty, intituled, "An Act for the relief of Quakers, Moravians, and Separatists elected to municipal offices." And whereas another Act was passed in the first and second years of the reign of her present Majesty, intituled, "An Act for the further relief of Quakers, Moravians, and Separatists." And whereas another Act was passed in the eighth and ninth years of the reign of her present Majesty, intituled, "An Act for the relief of persons of the Jewish religion elected to municipal offices." And whereas it is expedient to render it unnecessary to make and subscribe any declaration prescribed by any of the said Acts: Be it enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords spiritual and temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. It shall not be obligatory for any person who shall hereafter be placed, elected, or chosen in or to the office of mayor, alderman, recorder, bailiff, town clerk, or common councilman, or in or to any office or magistracy, or place, trust, or employment relating to the government of any county, city, corporation, borough, or cinque port within England and Wales, or the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, either before or upon or after his admission into any of the aforesaid offices or trusts, or for any person who shall hereafter be admitted into any office or employment, or who shall accept from her Majesty, her heirs and successors, any patent, grant, or commission, either before or upon or after his admission into any office, employment, or place of trust, or his acceptance of any patent, grant, or commission, to make and subscribe any declaration prescribed by any of the said Acts.

ECCLESIASTICAL DILAPIDATIONS.

A Bill intituled an Act for the Amendment of the Law relating to Ecclesiastical Dilapidations. (The Lord Archbishop of Canterbury.) 20th March, 1862. (20.)

WHEREAS as well for the better sustentation of houses of residence, chancels, and other buildings which incumbents of ecclesiastical benefices and other ecclesiastical persons are, by law or custom, bound to maintain in repair, as also for the relief of such persons and their representatives, it is expedient to amend the law relating to ecclesiastical dilapidations, &c. &c.

8. On the passing of this Act, and from time to time as occasion may require, a sufficient number of fit persons shall be appointed as surveyors of ecclesiastical dilapidations for each diocese.

12. At any time, and from time to time, after the passing of this Act, it shall be lawful for the bishop, on the request, in writing, of the archdeacon, or of the patron of a benefice, or at the request of the incumbent, to direct a surveyor for the diocese to inspect the buildings of the benefice.

13. The surveyor shall, fourteen days at least before making his inspection as to any benefice, give the incumbent, or, in his absence, the officiating clergyman, notice, in writing, of the day on which he purposes to attend for the purpose of such inspection; such notice shall be given by a prepaid letter sent by the post, and addressed to such incumbent or officiating clergyman at the house of residence of the benefice or other his usual or last known place of abode.

14. On any such inspection, the surveyor shall make a report of the result of his inspection. The report shall be addressed to the bishop, and shall, as soon as conveniently may be, and not more than three weeks after such inspection, be filed by the surveyor in the registry of the diocese, and the surveyor shall, at the same time, leave with the registrar two copies of the report. As soon as conveniently may be, and not more than one week after the filing of the report, the registrar shall serve one of such copies on the incumbent, by sending the same by the post, by a prepaid letter addressed to the incumbent at the house of residence of the benefice, or other his usual place of abode; or, in case that shall not be known, the letter shall be addressed to one of the churchwardens.

15. Where, in the opinion of the surveyor, founded on such inspection, any works are needed for putting into a proper state of repair any building belonging to a benefice, he shall in his report state,—1. What works are so needed, specifying the same in detail, and distinguishing those (if any) which ought to be executed by the incumbent at his personal cost (hereinafter called ordinary repairs) from those the cost of which ought to be provided by a continuing charge on the benefice (hereinafter called extraordinary repairs): 2. What he estimates to be the probable cost of such works, distinguishing the costs of the ordinary from the costs of the extraordinary repairs: 3. At or within what time or times such works respectively ought to be executed. Nothing in the report or in this Act contained shall render the incumbent subject to any greater liability in respect of dilapidations than he would have been subject to if this Act had not been passed. And if the surveyor shall be of opinion that no works are needed, he shall so report, and such report shall, for the purposes of this Act, be equivalent to a report of the due execution of prescribed works.

16. Where the incumbent objects to the report,—1. He may, within twenty-one days after service on him of the report, file a statement of his objections in the registry, in duplicate: 2. The registrar shall forthwith transmit one of such duplicates to the bishop: 3. As soon as conveniently may be, and not more than fourteen days after the filing of the statement, the bishop shall refer the same to a competent person: 4. The referee shall, with all convenient speed, proceed to inquire into and decide on the objections, and the statement of his decision shall be filed in the registry, and two copies of the statement shall at the same time be left with the registrar: 5. As soon as conveniently may be after the filing of the statement, the registrar shall, in manner hereinbefore described, serve one of such copies on the incumbent. In case of the death of the referee before making a statement of his decision, the bishop may appoint another referee in his stead, who shall have all the powers of the original referee. All the costs and expenses of and attending the inspection, survey, and report of the surveyor, and of and attending the reference (if any) under this and the preceding section, including all preliminary and incidental expenses relating thereto respectively, shall be borne and paid as follows:—If the report of the surveyor shall specify any extraordinary repairs, the total amount of such costs and expenses shall be apportioned according to the amount to be expended in ordinary and extraordinary repairs. The proportion in respect of ordinary repairs (or, if there shall be no extraordinary repairs, then the whole amount) shall be borne and paid by the incumbent, and the proportion in respect of the extraordinary repairs shall be raised in the manner hereinafter provided. The costs and expenses payable under this present section in respect of ordinary repairs shall be debts due to the surveyor who shall have made the report, and shall be recoverable by him or his representatives by action at law. If no objections to the report shall be made by the incumbent, then, at the end of the period limited for making objections thereto, the report shall be final; and if objections shall have been made, then, after the filing of the referee's statement, the report, as modified by the referee, shall be final; and the validity of such report or modified report (whether as to the apportionment of ordinary and extraordinary repairs, or otherwise) shall not afterwards be questioned.

23. A certificate of the surveyor who shall have made the report, nominated by the bishop for that purpose (which shall be filed in the registry in duplicate, and one of the duplicates whereof shall be served on the incumbent by the registrar), shall be conclusive evidence of the due execution of the prescribed works, or of the neglect or refusal of the incumbent to duly execute them in the prescribed manner and at or within the prescribed time or times.

24. After a surveyor's report shall have been made under this Act as to any benefice, no further or subsequent report shall be made as to the same benefice (except at the request of the incumbent himself) before the end of five years from the filing of the certificate of the due execution of the works prescribed by the last report, unless such benefice shall sooner become vacant. In case of such vacancy, a new inspection and report may be made at any time in the same manner as if the five years had expired. If such benefice shall become vacant within such period of five years, the incumbent or his representatives shall not be liable to any claim for dilapidations in respect of such benefice, either under this Act or at the suit of the succeeding incumbent independently of this Act, except for wilful

waste, and loss or damage by fire, flood, or tempest. The exemption from liability under this present section shall in no case apply to an incumbent who, at the time of filing the certificate of the due execution of the works, shall not have insured, to the satisfaction of the bishop, the house of residence belonging to the benefice and the outbuildings thereof, in some fit office, against loss or damage by fire, in at least three-fifths of the value thereof, and who shall not keep such house and buildings so insured during such period of five years, or until the earlier avoidance of the benefice.

25. If any incumbent shall refuse or neglect duly to execute in the prescribed manner, and at or within the prescribed time or times, any prescribed ordinary repairs, it shall be lawful for the bishop, and he is hereby required, to procure from some competent person an estimate of the cost of such works, and to authorize the execution thereof, and to raise the amount of such estimate, if not otherwise provided by the incumbent, together with all costs incurred by the bishop in relation thereto, by sequestration of the profits of the benefice. The estimate procured by the bishop, when certified by him, and filed in the registry of the diocese, shall be conclusive evidence of the propriety and correctness of the estimate, and of the amount required to be raised.

26. When it is represented to the bishop by the incumbent of a benefice that the house of residence of the benefice is on too large and expensive a scale to be suitable to the value and other circumstances of the benefice, and where the patron shall consent thereto in writing, it shall be lawful for the bishop, if he shall think proper, upon a report of one of the surveyors of the diocese, filed in manner hereinbefore required, recommending to what extent and in what manner the size of such house should be reduced, to authorize such report to be carried into effect, within such period and subject to such terms and conditions as may be prescribed by the bishop; and it shall thereupon be lawful for the incumbent, at his own expense, to carry such report into effect; and upon the certificate of the surveyor, approved by the bishop, and filed in manner hereinbefore provided, that the works recommended by the report have been properly completed, the incumbent shall be protected from all liability for dilapidations by reason of such alteration or removal having been made.

32. Monies paid by succeeding incumbent to be a debt due from prior incumbent.

33. The bishop may, by order in writing, postpone the execution of any prescribed works for any period not extending beyond the next avoidance of the benefice, if from any circumstances it appears to him proper so to do. Before the postponement, the incumbent shall pay to the bishop the costs of the inspection, survey, and report (and reference, if any), and shall pay to the governors of the bounty of Queen Anne, or secure to the satisfaction of the bishop and governors, the payment to the governors of the full estimated costs of the ordinary repairs, and such a further gross or annual sum as the surveyor, having regard to the circumstances of the case, shall, with the approval of the bishop, certify to be a proper sum to be paid by the incumbent for the extraordinary repairs, and for providing the additional cost likely to be incurred in the execution of the ordinary and extraordinary repairs in consequence of the postponement. At the end of the period of postponement, the surveyor who shall have made the report, or his successor in office, or one other of the surveyors for the diocese, shall, by a certificate, state what (if any), additional or substituted works are

necessary. This certificate shall be filed with the report, and shall, for the purposes of this act, be deemed part of the original report; and the amount required for extraordinary repairs beyond the sum which shall have been received by the governors on account of such repairs, shall be raised by a charge under the eighteenth and succeeding sections, together with the costs authorized to be charged by that section; and as well the sum so paid to them for ordinary repairs as the sums so received and raised for extraordinary repairs shall be paid to a competent person to be nominated by the bishop, and shall be expended by the nominee in executing the ordinary and extraordinary repairs. The payments made or secured by the incumbent under this section (notwithstanding they may ultimately prove insufficient) shall entitle the incumbent and his representatives to the same exemption from liability to dilapidations as would have been conferred by the filing of a certificate of the completion of such repairs, if it had been filed on the day of filing the postponed report. After any postponement of works under this section, the bishop may, from time to time, by writing under his hand, extend the period of postponement; and any original or subsequent postponement shall be made subject to such (if any) additional payments by the incumbent as shall be certified by the surveyor by whom the report shall have been made, or by his successor in office, or one other of the surveyors of the diocese, to be proper, with reference to such postponement. Each original or subsequent postponement may also be subject to such terms and conditions (if any) as shall be prescribed by the bishop, and assented to by the incumbent. The additional payments under a subsequent postponement shall be made or secured to the said governors as in the case of an original postponement. The sums paid to the governors by or on account of the incumbent shall, until expended, be invested by the governors; and, during the period of postponement, the annual produce of the investments shall be paid to the incumbent. If the incumbent fail to observe or perform any of the prescribed terms or conditions, either as to payment of money or otherwise, he shall cease to be entitled to any exemption from liability under this section; and the bishop shall cause the prescribed works to be executed, and shall otherwise proceed under the report as in the case of an incumbent making default under the twenty-fifth section. All sums which shall have been previously received by the governors from the incumbent in respect of the report (except interest) to be deemed payments made on account of his liability under the report.

34. It shall be lawful for the surveyor, referee, and nominee under this Act their servants and workmen, for the purposes of this Act, to enter into the buildings belonging to any benefice, and the same and every part thereof to inspect and examine, and also to inspect and examine the works in progress under this act, and also for all persons authorized by the bishop in that behalf, their officers, servants, and workmen, to execute any works by this Act authorized. But nothing in this Act shall be deemed to authorize any person to enter into any house of residence except at seasonable times and within reasonable hours, or to enter into or remain in any house of residence, or any particular part thereof, oftener or longer than may be necessary for the purposes of this Act.

42. At any time after the passing of this Act, it shall be lawful for any archbishop or bishop to require a surveyor appointed under this Act for the diocese of such archbishop or bishop, or to employ any surveyor approved for the purpose by the ecclesiastical commissioners for England, to inspect

and examine any house of residence or other building belonging to the see of such archbishop or bishop, which he is by law or custom bound to maintain in repair at his own personal cost.

43. If, at any time after the passing of this Act, it shall be made to appear to either of the archbishops that any house of residence or other building belong to any see within his province, which the bishop is, by law or custom, bound to maintain in repair at his own personal coast, is not in a proper state of repair, it shall be lawful for the archbishop to order a surveyor appointed under this Act for the diocese of such bishop to inspect and examine such house of residence or other building.

44. The surveyor so required, employed, or ordered to act shall inspect and examine such house of residence or other building in the manner in which the inspection and examination of buildings belonging to benefices are herein-before directed to be made, and shall make a report of the result of such inspection and examination, which, in all cases, shall be addressed to the archbishop of the province, and shall be filed in the registry of the province in duplicate. One of such duplicates shall be delivered or sent by the registrar to the archbishop or bishop to whose see the report relates.

45. Where, in the opinion of the surveyor, founded on any such inspection, any works are needed for putting into a proper state of repair the house of residence or other building inspected, he shall in his report state what works are so needed, and at or within what time or times such works, or any particular part or parts thereof, ought to be executed.

46. If a bishop shall object to any of the recommendations of the report of a surveyor acting under the order of an archbishop, the like proceedings may and shall be taken as are herein-before provided for in the case of an incumbent objecting to any of the recommendations of the report of a surveyor, and the provisions herein before contained respecting such case, and respecting costs in such case, shall extend and apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to the case of a bishop so objecting.

47. Subject to any modification made by a referee, it shall be the duty of the archbishop or bishop to whose See the report relates to execute the works prescribed in the surveyors report, in the manner and at or within the times or time therein prescribed. A certificate of the surveyor shall be conclusive evidence of the due execution of such works.

48. After a surveyor's report shall have been made under this Act as to the house of residence of any archbishop or bishop, no further or subsequent report shall be made as to the same house, except at the request of the archbishop or bishop, before the end of five years from the filing of the certificate of the due execution of the works prescribed by the last report, unless the archbishopric or bishopric shall sooner become vacant. In case of such vacancy, a new inspection and report may be made at any time, in the same manner as if the five years had expired. If such archbishopric or bishopric shall become vacant within such period of five years, the archbishop or bishop shall not, as to such house of residence, be liable to any claim for dilapidations in respect of such archbishopric or bishopric, either under this Act or at the suit of the succeeding archbishop or bishop independently of this Act, except for wilful waste and loss or damage by fire, storm, or tempest; but this exemption from liability shall be subject to the like condition in regard to insurance against fire as is contained in the twenty-fourth section in the case of the incumbent of a benefice.

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION.

Seventh Report of Her Majesty's Civil Service Commissioners.

IN our last report we stated that the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury had intimated to us their intention to establish preliminary test examinations for the departments under their control, in compliance with the recommendation of the select committee of the House of Commons appointed in the preceding year "to inquire into the present mode of nominating and examining candidates for junior appointments, with a view of ascertaining whether greater facility may not be afforded for the admission of properly qualified persons." The arrangements which were then in progress have since been completed, and the general result is, that candidates for clerkships and other appointments of the same description in the gift of their lordships are now subjected to a preliminary examination, which includes (1), handwriting, spelling, arithmetic, and English composition, a certain proficiency in which is of course indispensable for all such appointments; (2) other subjects, a knowledge of which is judged by the authorities of particular departments to be necessary for the proper discharge of official duty in those departments, as, for example; book-keeping in offices of account under the Board of Inland Revenue; and (3) a language, ancient or modern, where required by the rules previously in force. For further explanation, and for a statement of one or two exceptions to the general rules above mentioned, we may refer to the correspondence and tables printed in the appendix to this report.

No other department has yet made arrangements for the preliminary test examination of candidates, but the Board of Admiralty have made an important change in the mode of admission to their department, and, while somewhat lowering the qualifications required for their establishment, have materially raised the standard for temporary clerkships, their intention being that no examination should hereafter be required on transfer from the lower situations to the higher. We alluded in the correspondence which preceded the change to the difficult questions which have arisen as to the separation of mechanical from intellectual labour, and the proper position of temporary clerks. These questions, we believe, will require attention, in order that satisfactory arrangements as to the conditions of entrance into the public service may be established.

Having adverted to one important change made by the Board of Admiralty since our last report was presented, we may mention another, from which we anticipate the best results. Their lordships have been pleased to open to general competition the situations of engineer boys in their factories, and of apprentice in the several dockyards. For each class of appointments the ability to read, write, spell, and work sums in elementary arithmetic is required, and for the situation of engineer-boy a knowledge of the first three books of Euclid is also required. We have before had occasion to notice the very satisfactory manner in which the boys at some of the dockyards have acquitted themselves, and the observation may here be repeated.

We have also to mention an open competition lately held for the situation of assistant-schoolmaster in Devonport dockyard. Nine candidates were examined, their testimonials having been previously considered by Dr. Wool-

ley, the Inspector of Admiralty Schools, who gave us the benefit of his advice on the occasion. The mathematical portion of the examination included, by their lordships' desire, mechanics, hydrostatics, the differential and integral calculus, and the elements of differential equations. Several of the candidates acquitted themselves well, and it was a satisfaction to us to observe that one who distinguished himself in the higher mathematics had received his education in a dockyard school.

Twenty-seven candidates for student interpreterships in China and Japan were examined under our direction in June last at the request of the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and in consequence of a communication received from the Colonial Office, we are about to examine candidates for interpreterships at Hong Kong. The examinations of persons nominated for employment on the census of Great Britain and Ireland have also been numerous. The Irish candidates for this description of employment have not, it will be seen, succeeded as well as those who, coming from a more educated class, have aspired to higher appointments. The certificates and rejections in this class for the year 1861 were as follows:—England 90 certificates, and 37 rejections; Scotland, 21 certificates, and 17 rejections; Ireland, 120 certificates, and 143 rejections: total, 231 certificates, and 197 rejections.

It must be stated that the examination is a very slight one.

We proceed to give, as on former occasions, the statistics of our commission to the close of last year, adding such observations as they suggest. The total number of nominations, from the 21st May, 1855, to the close of 1858 (three years and seven months) was 7,942; and for the three years 1859, 1860, and 1861, taken together, it was 10,416; those of last year being 4,867.

In 1856, the provincial clerks of the Post Office, and the letter carriers employed by that department, altogether about 5000 in number, were brought under the operation of the Order in Council. In 1859, arrangements were made for the grant of certificates to rural messengers, of whom there are more than 4500; and, since the Superannuation Act of 1859, we have also granted certificates for Admiralty artificers, on admission to the several dockyards. The total of this class is about 12,000. Certificates have, since the commencement of the present year, been granted for the artificers employed under the War Office. In further explanation of the great increase in the number of nominations, we may mention that 729 candidates have presented themselves for the preliminary examination which, as above mentioned, has been established by the Treasury. The examination of candidates for admission to the Admiralty factories and dockyards was first intrusted to us at the beginning of 1860, and 441 candidates were nominated in 1861.

The number of persons nominated as competitors and of the situations for which they competed, have been as follows:—In 1855-56 (nineteen months), 458 competitors nominated for 109 situations, competed. In 1857, 351 competitors for 166 situations; 1858, 833 competitors for 258 situations; 1859, 1179 competitors (including 391 who competed for 9 writerships in the India service) for 259 situations; in 1860, 705 competitors for 242 situations; and in 1861, 794 competitors for 259 situations. Total, 4320 competitors for 1233 situations.

Of the 266 competitors in 1861, it appears that 41 obtained places sufficiently high to bring them within the number of situations competed for,

and would have received appointments if they had not failed in particular subjects, these subjects being, except in fifteen cases, of immediate practical utility for the discharge of their official duties. These failures have, of course, been much diminished in number by the institution of preliminary test examinations.

The certificates and rejections in non-competitive examinations have been,—1855-6 (nineteen months), 1686 certificates, 880 rejections; 1857, 1354 certificates, 490 rejections; 1858, 1154 certificates, 292 rejections; 1859, 1511 certificates, 310 rejections; 1860, 1675 certificates, 317 rejections; 1861, 2982 certificates, 444 rejections. Total, 10,362 certificates, 2733 rejections.

Out of the total number rejected (2733), all but 145 have failed to arithmetic, in spelling, or in "reading the addresses of letters," a test in which candidates for the situation of letter-carrier and rural messenger are subjected. It will, however, be understood that of those who have failed in one or more of the qualifications specified, some have failed in others also.

The cases in which candidates have been considered as ineligible in respect of age, health, or character, have been as follows:—1855-7, 218 age, 42 health, 35 character; 1858, 59 age, 23 health, 20 character; 1859, 66 age, 16 health, 21 character; 1860, 42 age, 30 health, 31 character; 1861, 113 age, 22 health, 47 character. Total, 498 age, 133 health, 154 character.

The task of inquiring into the character of candidates is by no means an easy one, and cannot be satisfactorily performed without the most confidential intercourse between those who can give information and those on whom the duty of deciding is imposed. Delay is sometimes occasioned, and there must sometimes also be dissatisfaction, which it would be difficult to meet, if it were conceded that an individual nominee has anything of a vested interest in the appointment for which he is a candidate. But although it is, of course, our anxious desire to do justice to the candidate, we feel that the State has a right to the service of persons to whom no reasonable suspicion attaches; and that the Order in Council which requires proof, satisfactory to us, of the good character of the candidate, rests upon the soundest principles.

We have, on former occasions, adverted to the importance of maintaining proper limits of age; and we do not here repeat our observations. Fixed rules must, from time to time, be productive of hardship to individuals; such cases of hardship cannot, we believe, be met except by the argument that it is for the interest of the public that fixed rules should be maintained; and that the notion of fixed rules, which are to be relaxed as often as they interfere with the interests of individuals, is not a very reasonable one. The number of honorary certificates granted in successive years has been,—1855-6, 228; 1857, 159; 1858, 174; 1859, 182; 1860, 149; 1861, 136. Total, 1028.

We do not on this occasion print our ordinary examination papers. As we gave last year all those which had been sent in the course of 1860, and no change of any importance has since been made, we think, that by printing the papers of 1861 we should only delay the presentation, and increase the bulk of our report without answering any useful purpose.

Examinations for the Civil Service of India.—The appointments given by examination since the establishment of the present system have been as

follows:—1855, 20; 1856, 20; 1857, 12; 1858, 20; 1859, 40; 1860, 80; 1861, 80; and we have been officially informed that 80, at least, will be assigned in July next, if a sufficient number of competent candidates should present themselves. The number of candidates, although it has not increased in proportion to the vacancies, has steadily arisen since 1856, in which year 56 only were examined. In 1860, the number was 154, and last year 171. Of these 36 came from the University of Oxford, 34 from Cambridge, 27 from Trinity College, Dublin, 7 from the Queen's University in Ireland, and 20 from Scottish universities. For further details we may refer to our appendix; but it may here be mentioned that, out of the first five candidates, four were Scotch by birth or education. Of these four, one was first in mathematics, and two obtained full marks in moral science, one of them being also first in English literature, &c., and in Greek. The highest marks for Latin and for English composition were obtained by Oxford candidates; and the highest for Sanskrit and for Arabic, by Irish candidates. A candidate privately educated obtained the highest marks for natural science.

We notice with satisfaction the great increase in number of candidates who offer themselves for examination in Sanskrit. Out of an aggregate of 295 candidates examined in 1855 and the three following years, six only professed an acquaintance with that language. Last year the number examined in Sanskrit was 36 out of 171. Before leaving this subject, we must observe that the statistics of the successive examinations show some tendency on the part of candidates to diffuse their reading over a considerable number of subjects, instead of confining themselves to a few, and obtaining a thorough knowledge of them. The average number taken by successful candidates has remained about the same; but the instances in which eight, or even nine, subjects have been taken (the English subjects being taken together, and counting one only), have been more frequent in recent than in earlier years. The rule has hitherto been that marks not exceeding one-tenth of the maximum should not be allowed to count, and one result has been that the candidates (only four in number) who have presented themselves for examination in nine subjects have never obtained marks for all the nine, and have thus lost a portion of their labour. We shall, however, consider, whether it may not be better to require, in some at least of the subjects, a proportion larger than one-tenth.

Passing to the further examination, at which the selected candidates have to present themselves after their year of study, we may state that for sixteen of those who attended last year, we were unable to grant certificates. We are fully sensible of the advantages of university training, and we believe that no one who intends to become a candidate can be better employed than in attention to those subjects which are within the range of an ordinary English education of the higher class; but we think it most important that, when a place on the list of selected candidates has been obtained, the year which follows should be entirely devoted to preparation for official duty. We observe with satisfaction that in several of the universities and colleges of the kingdom, efforts are made to give to the selected candidates the assistance which they require for the successful prosecution of their studies.

We have had occasion in former reports to state our conviction of the great importance of proper legal training. We continue to require notes of cases heard in courts of law, and we believe that the exercise is one of

great utility to the candidates. The authorities of several of the courts of law in London, and elsewhere, have had the goodness to assist us by facilitating the admission of selected candidates, and our acknowledgments are particularly due to those of the Central Criminal Court.

It will be recollected that her Majesty's commissioners who were appointed in 1853 to consider the reform of the judicial establishments and laws of India, prepared codes of civil and criminal procedure, intended for adoption in the presidency towns and throughout the provinces of India. The new codes passed by the local legislatures in consequence of the reports of the commissioners, besides deviating in some points from the recommendation of the commissioners, affect the provinces only; but notwithstanding this limitation, they regulate the proceedings of all courts in which civil servants preside. Further changes have been carried into effect by the local legislatures, involving the abolition of the criminal law previously in force in the provinces, and also of that which, being in force within the local jurisdiction of the supreme courts, was applicable to British subjects throughout the provinces, as well as in the presidency towns. An uniform code (Lord Macaulay's), applicable to all persons in all places within the British territories in India, has been substituted. It has been our endeavour, by the instructions which we have issued, to direct the attention of candidates to the law as they will find it on their arrival in India.

An Act was passed in the last session of Parliament, in order to carry out another recommendation of the commissioners, the abolition of the present supreme and sudder courts, and the substitution of a single tribunal, to be called the High Court. We propose to bring the changes which may result from this important measure under the notice of the candidates who may this year be selected.

SCIENCE AND ART.

Ninth Report of the Science and Art Department of the Committee of Council on Education.

THE Report is arranged under the following divisions:—I.—Aid given to the industrial classes in obtaining instruction in the branches of Science and Art which have a direct bearing on their several occupations. II.—The administration of the South Kensington Museum as the central repository for examples of Science and Art, which, so far as may be possible, are made available for the benefit of the United Kingdom, and are circulated to provincial schools. III.—Institutions for the promotion of Science and Art which are subject to the superintendence of the Department.

I.—AID GIVEN TO THE INDUSTRIAL CLASSES IN OBTAINING INSTRUCTION IN THE BRANCHES OF SCIENCE AND ART WHICH HAVE A DIRECT BEARING ON THEIR SEVERAL OCCUPATIONS.

As respects Science.—1. Our report for the year 1860 contained the results of the second annual examination of teachers under the science minute of the 2nd of June, 1859. The present report embraces the third examination of teachers and the first examination of classes. In both cases this branch of the department has worked satisfactorily. Of the examination of teachers for certificates, which is held in November of each year, we have to report the results as follow of the three consecutive examinations:—

In 1861 there were 103 candidates, of whom 97 passed. In 1860 there were 89 candidates, of whom 75 passed.

Of the number passed in 1861 only five or six have received any special scientific training at the cost of the State. The system of State-training for masters of science schools, which a few years since was by some thought to be indispensable, is thus proved to be unnecessary. Many masters came up to improve the grade of their certificate, showing that a healthy stimulus is given to their teaching power by the present system of payment on results. Of the total number, 57 were new candidates.

The first annual examination of classes in May was held at 35 centres. Of 1000 papers that were worked by students, 725 were passed; and of these, 310 obtained "Queen's prizes." The 1000 papers were distributed to about 650 students. Captain Donnelly, the inspector for science, estimates the number actually under instruction at 2200 persons, but of them 870 were not taught by certificated masters, and the classes in which they were taught were in existence before the science minute was passed. Excluding these 870 students, the progress of science instruction under the minute is as follows:—In 1859 there were 4 schools and 438 students. In 1860, 9 schools and 500 students; and, in 1861, 38 schools and 1330 students. The examination in May, 1862, promises to show a large increase in these numbers.

The report of the inspector for science exhibits the detailed working of the scientific instruction of the department. The navigation schools at Hull, Newcastle, Sunderland, Great Yarmouth, and Shadwell (London) show about the same results in the past year as in 1860. Captain Harris, the occasional inspector for navigation schools, reports favourably of their general condition, notwithstanding the fluctuating attendance of boys who go to sea at certain seasons of the year. This observation, however, does not apply to the Hull school, where a progressive and systematic system of education is followed. The teaching of officers and seamen is generally more satisfactory than that of boys. The Board of Education in Ireland is zealous in the effort to train pupil-teachers who shall hereafter form navigation classes in the seaport towns.

Aid by examples, &c., has been granted in 25 cases against 20 in 1860, and the aid has been 155*l.* 13*s.* 9½*d.*, against 101*l.* 11*s.* 2*d.* The increase in the establishment of science classes has caused this augmented grant.

As respects Art.—The report of the head-master of the Central School of Art, South Kensington, shows that this school has continued to advance during the past year. The number of students was, in the last two half-yearly sessions, respectively 423 and 376, and the amount of fees 1589*l.* 3*s.*; as compared with 389 and 358, and in fees 1,457*l.* 16*s.* in the previous twelve months.

As the art schools in the provinces have gained permanence, it has been found possible to reduce year by year the number of students in training for masterships who receive allowances from the department; in 1860 they were 57 against 68 in last year: this reduction will be cautiously continued. On the other hand, the students to whom their fees were remitted have been more numerous, 59 against 40. The certificates and medals taken show an increase corresponding to these statistics. They were:—Certificates, in 1860, 40; in 1861, 59. Medals, in 1860, 43; in 1861, 61. National medallions, in 1860, 8; in 1861, 14.

The metropolitan district schools in connection with the central school

obtained 21 medals and one national medallion. The awards in the 1st and 2nd grade examinations in London were as follow:—1st grade rewards, in 1860, 280; in 1861, 365. Elementary prizes, in 1860, 301; in 1861, 156. 2nd grade rewards, in 1860, 366; in 1861, 140. Prize studentships, in 1860, 4; in 1861, 17.

The average number of children taught in parochial schools in London through the agency of the central school was 10,701, exhibiting an increase of 900 on the year before, and the total number of persons who have been thus under instruction was, in public or other schools, 11,499; in central schools, 983; together 12,482. The head-master reports favourably on the advance made by the students of the female classes, who may now be held to be equal with the male classes in proficiency.

The total number of art schools throughout the kingdom, not counting classes for teaching drawing in connection with schools, was 87 in 1861, against 85 and 78 in the two preceding years. New schools have been opened at Hull and Sunderland. The number who were taught at the central provincial schools rose to 15,483, or nearly what they were in 1859. In 1860, there had been a considerable falling off in these classes, which was ascribed to the volunteer movement. During the past year also the teaching in parochial schools was somewhat affected by the anticipated action of the new code of the education department; nevertheless, the total number of children under this head who received instruction shows an increase on the preceding year, being 76,303, against 74,267 in 1860, and 67,490 in 1859.

The character and results of the examination in drawing of the diocesan and other training colleges have been closely similar to the last reported on. In 1861, the number examined were 2813; the number successful, 1523; and the certificates granted, 122. In 1860, the corresponding numbers were 2721, 1600, and 79. The increase in the number of certificates is due to the fact that the students are gradually working through the necessary number of papers to complete their certificates, which are taken at yearly intervals.

The following are the total number of prizes and medals issued in the past three years:—For drawing on slates, in 1859, 1282; in 1860, 1836; in 1861, 1050. First grade prize, in 1859, 2822; in 1860, 2785; in 1861, 3046. Second grade prize, in 1859, 3718; in 1860, 3300; in 1861, 2038. Local medals, in 1859, 758; in 1860, 861; in 1861, 918. National medallions, in 1859, 67; in 1860, 76; in 1861, 85.

Aid by examples has been granted in 175 cases of art schools or classes, to the amount of 305*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.* In 1860, the number was 203, and the amount of aid 417*l.* 14*s.* 9*d.* The reduction has been mainly caused by disallowing aid on all duplicates or drawing materials.

The grand total of persons taught drawing through the agency of the department, in the last three years, has been as follows:—1859, 84,972; 1860, 89,481; 1861, 91,836; and the fees paid—1859, 15,366*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*; 1860, 17,221*l.* 6*s.* 8½*d.*; 1861, 17,903*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*

II.—SOUTH KENSINGTON MUSEUM.

The new courts for the reception of the art collections of the Museum, for which a vote was taken in the year 1860, have advanced towards completion. The north court,* with its surrounding cloisters, has been arranged

* This court was opened on the 30th of April, 1862.

for the reception of specimens, chiefly of Italian art, in sculpture, pottery, glass, and furniture. The south court will, during the present year, be devoted to the exhibition of a collection of objects of mediæval art, brought together from royal, collegiate, municipal, and private collections throughout Great Britain and Ireland. It is proposed to open this court, thus filled, in the month of June, so as to supplement and illustrate the collections of modern art workmanship in the International Exhibition.

The picture galleries, under the charge of Mr. Redgrave, have received some valuable additions by donation. Mr. Redgrave reports that the condition of the pictures is all that could be desired; that the ventilation and heating of the rooms have continued to be satisfactory; and that the preservation of the more important and perishable pictures by glazing has been proceeded with.

The art collections have received some highly important additions, especially from the Soltikoff collection. Several of the principal objects of that collection have been acquired by the nation, and are now deposited in the Museum. The rooms have been entirely rearranged, and the Italian sculpture is for the first time exhibited. Numerous loans of value have been received, and a selection from the casts brought together by Sir Charles Barry for the Houses of Parliament has been arranged in one of the temporary corridors.

The circulation of objects from this central Museum to the provinces has continued on a largely increased scale. The superintendent reports that not a single accident has occurred, either to the travelling collection itself, which consists of 820 objects, or to 2970 additional loans. The travelling collection was visited by 221,281 persons.

The sale of photographs and reproductions has continued under the conditions named in the last report. The production by the department of photographic negatives not otherwise obtainable, and their publication by the trade, has been successfully commenced in the case of Turner's *Liber Studiorum*. The number of photographs issued during the year was 8884, and the amount received 715*l.* 14*s.* Of this sum, 111*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.* was paid to the trustees of the British Museum, on account of positives sold and as royalty on negatives. The total sale in the photograph office, since its opening, in October, 1859, has been 24,468 impressions, and the amount received 1587*l.* 4*s.* The number of visitors to the exhibition-room has been, in the last year, 20,187, against 22,933 in 1860.

The educational collections have increased during the past year, and the library has been consulted by 4525 persons, while in 1860 the number was 3037. The additions have been numerous and valuable; but want of space has rendered it necessary to decline many others which were offered. The removal of the art collections into the new courts and adjoining cloisters will afford more room to these collections in the course of the present year.

The collection of animal products has remained in nearly the state in which it was at the date of the last report. Want of space has precluded any considerable enlargement of the collection; but a few interesting additions have been made, and some portions have been improved.

The food collection has obtained increased room, and is better displayed than formerly. At the same time, some additions have been received which are well exhibited. Dr. Lankester, the superintendent, reports specially on the labelling of, and the scientific inquiries in connection with, the last two collections with which he has been charged.

The structural collection has received some additional space from the alterations in the art collections. It has acquired 478 new articles during the year, mainly exhibited by producers.

The great increase in the number of visitors to the Museum which took place in 1860 has been maintained (with a very slight variation) in the past year. The returns for the four complete years since the opening are as follows:—1858, 456,288; 1859, 475,365; 1860, 610,696; 1861, 604,550. The difference in the numbers during 1861 is to be ascribed to the closing of the Museum for a week on the occasion of the death of H.R.H. the Prince Consort. The average of that week in the three preceding years was 5993, which, added to 604,550, would give a total of 610,543 for the year. The experiment of opening the Museum free on Saturday evenings, instead of by payment of 6*d.* on Wednesday evenings, has been tried since the 1st of January, 1862. 39,612 persons have visited the Museum on the Saturday evenings up to the 14th of June in this year, while 5937 came on the corresponding Wednesday evenings in 1861.

The lectures delivered in the theatre of the Museum, exclusive of the usual class lectures on anatomy by Dr. Marshall, and on ornament by Mr. Hudson, have been restricted to two courses on ancient, mediæval, and modern art by Dr. Kinkel, and to a course on science instruction in connection with the science minute of 2nd June, 1859. The latter were delivered by Dr. Lankester, the Rev. B. M. Cowie, Dr. Percy, W. W. Smyth, Esq., Professor Hofmann, and Professor Huxley.

III.—INSTITUTIONS SUBJECT TO THE SUPERINTENDENCE OF THE DEPARTMENT.

Geological Survey, Museum of Practical Geology, and School of Mines.—The area surveyed during the past year in England and Scotland has been about the same as that of the previous year, namely, 1430 square miles, the work having been retarded by the nature of the ground and the resignation of some of the officers, whose places could not be immediately supplied. In Ireland 837 square miles of the six-inch maps have been examined, and boundary lines of 1114 miles followed, besides other districts re-surveyed, and 250 miles of boundary lines re-adjusted. The issue of maps and explanatory pamphlets has continued. In the Museum 3244 fossils have been labelled, tableted, and arranged. Some valuable additions have been made in this branch of the collections. To the Museum generally and to the library, numerous and valuable donations have been made, and the cataloguing and arranging of the specimens generally have advanced.

The director-general reports that in the School of Mines the occasional students have considerably increased in number, but the matriculated students have been fewer. In the sessions of 1859-60, 107 occasional students, and 14 matriculated students entered. In the sessions of 1860-61 these students were 187, and 6 in the respective classes. The professors of the school have met the supposed causes of the diminution in the number of matriculated students, and the entries of the present session show a decided increase. The students in the chemical laboratory were 110 in 1861, against 108 in 1860; and those in the metallurgical laboratory 30, against 27 in the same periods. The evening lectures, besides the lectures to working-men, have been continued, with the same success as last year. The fees received at the school have been 810*l.*, against 646*l.* 10*s.* in the previous period. The Mining Record Office has received large additions, and its statistics have, in several particulars, been corrected and enlarged.

The number of visitors has been 24,151, being about the average of the last few years.

Sir Charles Trevelyan, K.C.B., has kindly aided us in an inquiry into the present working of the establishment in Jermyn Street, with a view of extending and improving its working, and especially that of the school of mines. So soon as this inquiry has been brought to completion, its results will be laid before your Majesty.

The director of the Museum of Irish Industry reports that the number of visitors, during the past year, to that institution has been 24,843 in the day, and 10,150 in the evenings, including the lectures and other meetings, being a total of 34,993, or an increase of 1994 over those of the previous year. The arrangement and cataloguing of the collections have been continued, and a portion of the catalogue has been published. The detailed work of the several divisions of the Museum and school, and lists of donations and purchases, are given in Sir R. Kane's report.

The total average attendance at the various courses of lectures delivered under authority of the Royal Dublin Society, from February, 1861, to April, 1862, was 2295. The Botanical Gardens, which, since the 18th of last August, have been open to the public on Sundays, have been visited by 133,780 persons, of whom 80,655 were on Sundays; the remainder showing an increase of 13,782 on the preceding year. The total attendance on all the divisions of the society, including the lectures, cattle shows, museums, art exhibition (190,000, which is noticed in the statistics of the travelling collection), and art school, was 460,136; in 1860 it was 111,360.

The visitors to the Royal Zoological Society were 129,507, against 143,310 in 1860.

The foundation-stone of the new building for the Industrial Museum of Scotland was laid by his Royal Highness the Prince Consort, on the 23rd October, 1861. This was the last public act of that Prince.

Arrangements have been made to exhibit temporarily some portions of the collections during the present year, in the old houses in Argyle Square, which occupy part of the site of the future Museum. During the past year, upwards of 3000 specimens have been presented to this Museum, in a very liberal manner.

The regius keeper of the Museum of Natural History reports that the total attendance of the public, students, and others amounted to 100,154, being nearly 17,000 in excess of the previous year, and more than 11,000 over the highest year, 1858. The Museum has received many additions and donations to its collections.

Report of Mr. Thompson, Keeper of the Food Museum, for the Year 1861.

The food collection continues to be attractive to the general public. Many additions have been received during the past year, some of which possess considerable interest and value. Towards the end of the year a large additional space was acquired, which has enabled the collection to be more favourably exhibited. A good part of the collection is now shown in glazed cases, which not only protect the specimens from injury by exposure, but display them to a much greater advantage. Among the more important additions presented to the Museum may be mentioned a collection of food products from Siam; a smaller collection of the like nature from Japan; a case of mounted game birds from Nova Scotia; a series of cocoa and its preparations; a collection of edible sea-weeds; and a large diagram illus-

trating Dr. Normandy's process of converting ordinary sea-water into aerated fresh water, with specimens of the water so obtained.

The total number of additions during the year is as follows :—Donations, 165 ; purchased, 63 ; and sent for exhibition, 18. These numbers are exclusive of the Siamese and Japanese collections, which consist of 74 samples of specimens.

The following cases of chemical analysis have been prepared, and show the composition of wheaten bran, gooseberries, peaches, dates, cocoa-nut, millet, plantains, cucumber, Iceland moss, and carob beans. It having been considered desirable that a duplicate set of analysis food cases should be prepared for the purpose of being sent on loan to the provinces, 25 cases were completed for that purpose ; and during the year have been sent to Banbury, Manchester, Dorchester, and Southampton. The cases were accompanied by 22 large printed labels in glazed frames.

Report of Mr. Thompson, Keeper of the Animal Products Museum for the Year 1861.

A considerable number of interesting additions have been made during the past year, illustrating the application of animal products to industrial purposes. The great want of space, however, not only hinders the proper display of many specimens, but makes it impossible to receive most of the offers made to augment the collection. In some sections, particularly those devoted to woollen and silk manufactures, it is very desirable to renew the greater part of the manufactured specimens, which have not only become much deteriorated from long exposure, but do not fairly represent the present state of manufacture, which has, in many instances, made great advances on those exhibited. With these exceptions the collection is, generally speaking, in good condition. It is believed there would be little difficulty in obtaining the required fabrics if additional space was provided for showing them.

Among the more important additions that have been acquired during the year, may be mentioned a very interesting and valuable collection of Chinese silks and embroidery, obtained by the British troops at Peking during the Chinese war. This collection attracted much attention, and remained on view for more than four months, when it was withdrawn owing to a fear on the part of its proprietor that it would be injured if longer exposed to the action of light. In the fur division many new and valuable specimens have been received, and the entire collection newly exhibited in glazed cases made specially for it since the last report. A series of bees-wax from various parts of the world forms a valuable addition to the division illustrating animal oils and fats. Some interesting examples of animal products have been received from Siam, but for want of room are not at present shown in their proper places. Portions of these products have been distributed to the museums and other places mentioned in the report on the food collection.

Report of Dr. Lankester, Superintendent of the Food Collection.

National Food.—The particular additions to this part of the Museum will be found in the report of the keeper, Mr. Richard Thompson. To some of these additions I would, however, call special attention. During the past year two national collections of food have been presented to the Museum by her Majesty's Government, one from Siam and one from Japan. Both these

collections contain special and peculiar products, and in conjunction with the Chinese collection of food already existing in the Museum, constitute a very interesting illustration of the diet of Oriental nations. A small collection of products obtained from the bottom of one of the Swiss lakes, illustrates in a very interesting manner the diet and habits of the people who formerly inhabited the island residences of these and other lakes in Europe.

Water.—Amongst the specimens and objects exhibited in the general part of the food collection, I may mention a series of illustrations of the water supplied to the great towns of Great Britain, as Manchester, Glasgow, and other places. A series of specimens illustrating the analysis of water, and the most simple methods of detecting the various impurities of water supplied for dietetical purposes, have been exhibited. The makers of filters have also contributed their inventions, and the water supplied to the establishment is filtered, and the influence of the filter in purifying the water is exemplified by specimens.

Diseased Meat.—My attention has been drawn during the past year to the extensive sale of bad meat in the metropolis and other parts of the country. In order to make people acquainted with the appearance of diseased meat, and meat unfit for human food, wax models of the diseased meat have been exhibited. Specimens of measles pork, the cause of tape-worms, and of horses' tongues which are sold for bullocks' and reindeer's tongues, have been modelled, and are exhibited in the Museum.

Animals used as Food.—In addition to the case of pheasants purchased by the department as illustrative of the natural history of animals used as food, Dr. Sclater has presented a case of game birds from Nova Scotia. Two or three heads have been added to the groups of higher mammalia, and I hope, through the liberality of individuals, and the countenance of the department, to render this part of the Museum available for instruction in the history and characteristic qualities of those animals which afford the most nutritious and economical food.

Microscopes.—The Museum microscopes have been refitted with specimens of the microscopic structure of food.

Diagrams and Photographs.—A large number of illustrations of the structure of articles of food, and of the plants producing them, have been exhibited in the form of diagrams, drawings, and photographs. A series of diagrams by Miss Sowerby, illustrating the microscopic structure of adulterated food, have been suspended on the walls of the east gallery. At my request the inland revenue department allowed a series of copies of drawings which they had made for the use of the revenue officers in the laboratory of their department, to be made in photography by Mr. Thurston Thompson. These photographs have succeeded admirably, and form a series of interesting illustrations of the microscopic structure of substances used in the adulteration of tobacco, pepper, and snuff.

Adulteration of Food.—Illustrations of the adulteration of pepper, milk, sugar, cocoa, bread, and of the colouring of sugar, have been exhibited during the year.

The Chemical Composition of Food.—During the past year I have made a large number of calculations on the composition of various articles of food. The results of these calculations have been reduced in such a manner as to enable the curators to exhibit the composition of the same weights of various kinds of food in common use; and thus to present at once to the eye the special value of particular kinds of food.

TITHE COMMISSION.

Copy of the Report of the Tithe Commissioners to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for the Home Department, for the year 1862.

The commissioners reported that they received during the year 7070 agreements and confirmed 6778. They made 5647 drafts of compulsory awards, and confirmed 5449. In 12,227 districts, as will be seen from the above statement, the tithes have been commuted by confirmed agreements or confirmed awards. In 413 of these districts the rentcharges have been disposed of by redemption or merger. They received 11,786 apportionments, and confirmed 11,780; of which 2 were confirmed during the year 1862. They made 2778 altered apportionments, and confirmed 2402; and of these 168 have been received and 129 confirmed during the year 1862. They received 929 applications for the exchange of glebe lands, and confirmed 823 of such exchanges; and of these 59 applications were received and 32 exchanges confirmed during the past year. They received 463 applications for the redemption of rentcharge, and have completed 319 of such redemptions; and of these 110 were received, and 37 completed during the year 1862. They received 6 applications to convert variable corn rents payable under local Acts of Parliament into rentcharges to be henceforth payable in like manner as ordinary tithe rentcharges, and have completed awards in 2 of these cases. At the close of 1862 they had confirmed 14,595 distinct mergers of tithes or rentcharges.

CHURCH ESTATES.

Eleventh General Report from the Church Estates Commissioners.

The commissioners stated that in the previous year they had reported that the transactions approved by them, between August 1851 and March 1861, were 2127 in number, and that the value in fee of the estates so agreed to be dealt with was more than 7,750,000*l*. During this year they approved the terms agreed upon in 146 cases; 120 being cases of sales of reversions, and 26 cases of purchases of leasehold interests, and the value in fee of the estates so agreed to be dealt with exceeds 850,000*l*. The aggregate number of cases enumerated in their yearly reports as approved is therefore 2,273, and the value of the property dealt with exceeds 8,600,000*l*. In 9 cases they declined to approve the terms proposed; but in 3 of these the terms have been modified so as to meet with their sanction, and they have been included in the number above stated to have been approved.

ECCLESIASTICAL DILAPIDATIONS.

Report from the Committee of the House of Lords on the Ecclesiastical Dilapidation Bill. (130.)

On the 5th May, 1862, this bill was referred to a select committee of the House of Lords, of which the Archbishop of Canterbury, Lord Chancellor, Lord Archbishop of York, Duke of Devonshire, Earl of Derby, Earl Cowper, Earl Stanhope, Earl of Carnarvon, Earl of Romney, Earl of Ellenborough, Viscount Dungannon, Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe, Lord Bishop of London, Lord Bishop of Winchester, Lord Bishop of Oxford, Lord Bishop of Lincoln, Lord Portman, Lord Overstone, Lord St. Leonards, Lord Chelmsford, and Lord Taunton. The committee sat seven days, and finally reported on the 7th June, 1862—

That the committee have met, and have gone through the bill, clause by clause, and made numerous amendments therein.

The period of the session being now so far advanced, the committee recommend that the bill should stand over until next year; the bill, as amended, being meanwhile, and at once, re-printed for consideration and discussion among the persons interested.

And the committee have directed the bill, as amended, to be reported to your lordships.

DURHAM UNIVERSITY COMMISSION.

Report of the Commissioner appointed for the purpose of the Durham University Act, 1861.

In 1832, an Act was passed, endowing the University with an estate of which the gross income, during the last four years, has averaged 2240*l.*, and the net income 1710*l.* On the 20th July, 1835, the dean and chapter made twelve regulations for the better establishment of the University. In 1837, a Royal charter was granted; and, in 1840, an Act was passed, giving powers to the Ecclesiastical Commissioners to prepare, and lay before her Majesty in Council, schemes for maintaining the University of Durham in a state of respectability and efficiency. And, in 1841, an order in council was made applying a scheme of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, endowing the University with an estate of which the gross income had averaged 4330*l.*, and the net income 3700*l.*, besides other foundations and endowments. The commissioners reported that the average rental of the original and order-in-council estates amounted to 7170*l.*, and the average outgoings to 1760*l.*, or nearly one-fourth of the gross rental. The fees of students amounted to 1264*l.*, and the accounts show a deficit of upwards of 1,000*l.* a year. The number of students has, of late years, fallen off from 79, in 1857-58, to 44, in 1862-63. The studies are divided into two principal heads—school of arts, including classics and mathematics; and school of divinity. The commissioners having examined the causes of decline, framed sixteen ordinances, the principal portions of which are as follows:—

The Senate.—The senate shall consist of the warden, the professors, and the tutors. The senate shall manage the property, maintain the discipline, direct the studies and examinations, and transact the business of the Uni-

versity. The senate may appoint such officers as they deem necessary for the management, under their superintendence, of the property and income of the University, with such stipends as the senate, with consent of convocation, shall fix, and may at the time remove any of such officers. All future statutes of the University shall be originated by the senate, but shall require the confirmation of convocation. The senate shall meet once, at least, in every week during term, and the warden may call a special meeting of the senate whenever he thinks fit: three shall form a quorum. The warden shall preside, and, in case of equality of votes, shall have a second or casting vote. A meeting of the senate shall be dissolved by vote, or by the absence of the required quorum.

Convocation.—Convocation shall consist of the warden, the professors, the tutors, all persons who, at the date of the approbation of this ordinance by her Majesty in Council shall be members of convocation, and such persons as shall after that date have proceeded to the second degree in any one of the three schools named in the fifth ordinance, and have paid the prescribed fees. Convocation shall confirm or reject what is submitted to it by the senate, but shall have no power to originate or amend. The warden shall call a meeting of convocation as often as an act of the University shall have been passed by the senate requiring the confirmation of convocation. Five shall form a quorum. The warden shall preside, and, in case of equality of votes, shall have a second or casting vote. A meeting of convocation shall be dissolved by vote, or by the absence of the required quorum.

The Schools and Degrees.—Degrees shall be granted by the University in three separate schools, as under-mentioned:—

1. Arts (classics and mathematics), B.A. and M.A. 2. Theology, B.T. and M.T. 3. Physical science, B.S. and M.S.

The first degree in any school shall be granted to such matriculated students as shall have passed the prescribed examination in that school for that degree. No matriculated student shall be required to have kept more than four terms in order to proceed to the degree of bachelor in any one of the three schools. A graduate in any one of the three schools may, after an interval of three years, if he keep his name on the register of the University, proceed to the second degree in the same school. A graduate in any one of the three schools may at any time afterwards, with or without further residence, on passing the prescribed examination, proceed to the first degree, and, after an interval of three years, if he keep his name on the register of the University, to the second degree, in any other of those schools. Nothing contained in this ordinance will preclude the University from granting the degrees of bachelor and doctor of divinity, or degrees in medicine or in any other faculty, at their discretion; or affect in any way the terms of connection between the Newcastle-upon-Tyne College of Medicine and the University. The senate, with consent of convocation, shall have power to alter or repeal those terms of connection as they think fit. A licentiate or graduate in medicine may proceed, on passing the prescribed examination, to the degree of B.A., B.T., or B.S., provided he have resided one year in the University of Durham.

Any person who shall, at the date of the approbation of this ordinance by her Majesty in Council, be a licentiate in theology of the University, shall be admissible, without further residence or examination, to the degree of B.T., and, after an interval of three years, if he keep his name on the register of the University, to the degree of M.T. Any person shall be

admissible, by grace of the University, to the same degree which he possesses in another University; but such admission shall not qualify him to be a member of convocation. Any distinguished person shall be admissible, by grace of the University, to any honorary degree; but such admission shall not qualify him to be a member of convocation. All degrees shall be conferred by the warden in convocation.

Professors and Tutors.—The visitor has the appointment of the professors, to whose professorships canonries are annexed. The senate shall have the appointment of all other professors, and of all tutors. There shall be one professor of mathematics and astronomy, and in the school of physical science there shall be at least three professors—namely, the professor of chemistry and metallurgy, the professor of geology and mineralogy, and the professor of mining and machinery. The senate shall fix, from time to time, the number of tutors required for the instruction of the students; and may decide at any time upon an increase in the number of the professors; and may, with the consent of the visitor, suspend the appointment of a successor to any professor, in case the number of students wishing to attend the lectures of such professor shall appear too small to justify the appointment. All professors, other than those to whose professorships canonries are annexed, shall receive a fixed salary of 300*l.* a year each. Each of the tutors shall receive a fixed salary of 250*l.* a year. The fund arising from the fees paid for tuition shall be divided each term amongst the professors and tutors, in proportion to the number of lectures delivered by them respectively, and the number of students who have attended such lectures. The professors of divinity and ecclesiastical history and of Greek and classical literature shall not receive the salary assigned above to the professors, nor share in the division of the tuition fund, so long as canonries are annexed to their professorships. No separate fees shall be paid by matriculated students to professors whose lectures they attend. It shall be the duty of the tutors, besides taking part in the instruction, to superintend and control the conduct of the students. The senate shall have power to appoint such teachers of modern languages, bookkeeping, drawing, surveying, or other subjects, and with such salaries as they think fit, and may at any time remove any of such teachers.

Students.—There shall be no limitation of age for students. Students may be of two kinds, matriculated students, that is, students whose names have been placed, by the authority of the warden, on the register of the University; and non-matriculated students, that is, students who, though not on the register of the University, have the permission of the professor of mathematics and astronomy, or of one of the professors of physical science, to take advantage of his lectures. Every student wishing to be matriculated shall state to which school or schools he proposes to belong, and shall thereupon be subjected to an elementary examination adapted to the studies of such school or schools, as the case may be. He shall not be matriculated without having passed such an examination, unless he has gained a University scholarship. A matriculated student shall reside within the precincts of the college, or of some licensed hall or house, unless a dispensation to reside elsewhere be granted to him by the senate. Non-matriculated students shall pay such fees as the professor whose lectures they attend may fix. The senate shall have power to make rules for the maintenance of discipline and good order amongst such students. No person shall be held to be a member of the University who has not been

matriculated. Every member of the University shall be held to be *in statu pupillari* who has not been admitted to the second degree in some one of the three schools. Every member of the University *in statu pupillari* shall be liable, in case of misconduct, to such punishment as the authorities of the University shall inflict; provided that the punishment of rustication or expulsion shall only be inflicted by a vote of the senate. The senate shall provide for the attendance of the students at divine service, and shall make such regulations for this purpose as they think fit: provided, that no dissenter from the united Church of England and Ireland as by law established, shall be required to attend the Church service. No oath or subscription shall be required from any student, member, or officer of the University; but every person proceeding to a degree in the school of theology shall first declare that he is *bonâ fide* a member of the United Church of England and Ireland as by law established.

College and Halls.—The existing college and halls shall henceforth form one college. The senate shall be the governing body of the college, and shall appoint from time to time such officers and servants as shall be found necessary, with such stipends as they shall think fit. With a view to greater economy, the system of living in common now practised at Bishop Hatfield's Hall, shall be applied throughout. The rooms shall be let furnished, at a uniform rent, and a fixed weekly charge shall be made to students covering board and all domestic charges. The University shall receive the profit, and bear the loss, arising in respect of the college. The senate may make regulations concerning the licensing of halls and houses for the reception of students; but they shall not, without the consent of the visitor, and the concurrence of convocation, devote any lands, houses, or monies of the University to the foundation of any new college, hall, or house, or impose on the University any liability in respect thereof.

Terms.—The academical year shall consist of two terms, which shall be called respectively Michaelmas and Easter terms, and shall, together, not be less than nine months in length. The Michaelmas term shall commence on the 20th day of August and end on the 20th day of December, and the Easter term shall commence on the 20th day of January and end on the 20th day of June, or on such other days respectively as the senate shall annually determine; provided that the length of the academical year shall not be less than is above prescribed. No matriculated student shall be considered to have kept any term unless he has resided during the whole of it, except in case of illness, or other sufficient cause to be approved by the warden. If any matriculated student has been absent during the whole or the greater part of any term owing to illness, or other urgent cause approved by the warden, that term may, nevertheless, be granted to him by a grace of the University, provided that not more than one term be so granted to any one student during his University course.

University Scholarships.—From the date of the approbation of this ordinance by her Majesty in Council, there shall be no further election or appointment to the offices of registrar, or senior or junior proctor, or pro-proctor, or censor, or master, or vice-master of University College, or principal of Bishop Hatfield's Hall, or principal of Bishop Cosin's Hall, or sub-warden, or sub-treasurer, or bursar, or warden's secretary, nor to any of the six readerships, nor to any of the twenty University scholarships, nor to any of the four medical scholarships, nor to any of the twenty-four fellowships of the University. The income hitherto appropriated to the

offices, readerships, scholarships, and fellowships above mentioned shall be carried to the general account of the University. There shall be given out of the general account of the University, forty open scholarships of 30*l*. a year each, and forty open scholarships of 50*l*. a year each. The scholarships of 30*l*. a year shall be open to the competition of all persons, whether members of the University or not (provided that no member of the University shall compete who shall have resided in the University more than one month), and shall be tenable for two years, under the conditions of residence and good conduct. The scholarships of 50*l*. a year shall be open to the competition of all students commencing their second year, and shall be tenable for one year, under the like conditions, and for a second year if the scholar, having graduated in one school, become a student in some other school. No person shall hold at one time more than one University scholarship. If the holder of a University scholarship of 30*l*. be elected to a University scholarship of 50*l*. he shall *ipso facto* vacate the 30*l*. scholarship. The University scholarships shall be distributed between the three schools in proportion to the numbers of students therein respectively; provided that not more than one-third in number and value of the scholarships shall be held at any one time by the scholars in the school of physical science. The examination shall be held at the same time for the three schools, and shall be adapted to the subjects of study in those schools respectively. Public notice shall be given of the day and subjects of examination for the University scholarships at least thirty days before the examination begins. Any person desirous of becoming a candidate shall send in his name to the warden at least ten days before the day of examination, stating in which school he proposes to compete. In any case where no candidate of sufficient merit shall appear, the election to any scholarship may be postponed or omitted for that time. Every person elected to a University scholarship, if not already matriculated, must forthwith be matriculated, or shall forfeit his scholarship. The senate shall have power to inflict on any University scholar the penalty of deprivation of his scholarship, or temporary forfeiture of the emoluments and advantages thereof.

EDUCATION.

Minute by the Right Honourable the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council on Education. (115 of 1863.)

On the 19th May, 1863, the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council on Education resolved to cancel, after the 30th June, 1864, articles 136 and 137 of the Revised Code, and to add to article 52 a fourth paragraph (*d*), as follows, viz. :—

(*d*) By the amount of any annual endowment.

Their lordships, in order to facilitate the examination of individual children under the Revised Code, and to remunerate the inspectors for their share of the additional labour imposed by it, resolved—

1. To make it an instruction to the inspectors to perform their duties in each school not inspected for the first time, in the following order, viz. :—
(*a*) Examination of the children in religious knowledge, where the inspectors have to report upon it; (*b*) Examination in the subjects prescribed by the

Revised Code; (c) General inspection of the school, allowing for previous acquaintance with it.

2. To pay to each inspector, in addition to his present emoluments, 50*l*. on 30th June, 1864, and on the same day in each subsequent year, provided that he has, within the twelve months then ending, himself examined and marked in the official schedules—(a) 12,000 children at the least; or (b) Those presented for examination in the whole number of schools which he has been instructed to visit; or (c) One-third of the whole number examined and marked in his district after the appointment of an assistant.

These provisions may be varied after further experience.

Their lordships, in order to provide further for the examination of individual children according to the Revised Code, resolved to appoint, as occasion might require, inspectors' assistants, upon the following terms:—

1. Qualified candidates must (a) have been pupil teachers; (b) have been trained during two years in a college of the same denomination as the elementary schools in which they are to examine; (c) have passed each of their examinations without failure, and at the last of them have been placed not below the second division; (d) have received their certificates after the usual probationary service in an elementary school of the same denomination as those in which they are to examine; (e) have not exceeded their thirtieth year of age; (f) be recommended by the inspector under whom they are to examine.

2. Their salary shall commence at 100*l*. per annum, and shall rise by 10*l*. per annum to 250*l*. They shall be paid besides 1*l*. per child per annum after the first 12,000 examined and marked by themselves in the official schedules, but never more on this account than 50*l*.

They shall be reimbursed the actual expense of locomotion on the public service, but shall receive no further allowances.

3. They shall not be competent to examine, except in the presence of, or by a written order from, the inspector, who shall name therein both the particular school to be examined, and the date of the examination. All notices to the managers of schools shall be given by the inspector only.

4. They shall be prohibited from following any employment whatever, except such as is official. Private tuition is expressly included in this prohibition.

5. They shall hold a certificate from the Civil Service Commissioners.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

25° & 26° VICTORIA, 1862.

C.—ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS AND EDUCATION.

GREAT BRITAIN.

SIR JOHN SOANE'S MUSEUM.

CAP. IX.—*An Act to enable the Trustees of Sir John Soane's Museum to send Works of Art to the International Exhibition, 1862.* (11th April, 1862.)

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

CAP. X.—*An Act for continuing for a further limited time, and for extending the operation of orders made under the Industrial Schools Act, 1861, and the Industrial Schools (Scotland) Act, 1861.* (11th April, 1862.)

These Acts to continue in force till the 1st of January, 1867.

UNIVERSITIES (SCOTLAND.)

CAP. XXVIII.—*An Act to alter and amend the Universities (Scotland) Act, in so far as relates to the bequest of the late Dr. Alexander Murray, in the University of Aberdeen.* (30th June, 1862.)

EDUCATION OF PAUPER CHILDREN.

CAP. XLIII.—*An Act to provide for the education and maintenance of Pauper Children in certain Schools and Institutions.* (17th July, 1862.)

Guardians may send children to school. The Poor Law Board to certify that such school is fitted for the reception of such children. If any person is aggrieved, may report such a school. The Poor Law Board may order children to be removed from such school. Every school wherein such children are received, to be open to inspection. The guardians may bring back such children. No child to be sent to such school unless he or she be an orphan, or deserted by his or her parents or surviving parent, or be one whose parents or surviving parent shall consent to the sending of such child to the said school. The continuance in school not to be compulsory. The expense to be charged on the same fund as the relief of such child would be charged. No child to be sent to any school which is conducted on the principles of a religious denomination to which such child does not belong.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY.

CAP. XXVI.—*An Act to extend the power of making statutes possessed by the University of Oxford, and to make further provision for the Administration of Justice in the Court of the Chancellor of the said University.* (30th June, 1862.)

Power was given to the University to make regulations as to the appointment and suppression of professorships, fees, remuneration, &c. Power was also given to the Vice-Chancellor to make rules for regulation of his Court.

RAILWAY COMPANIES.

Return by the several Railway Companies in England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, showing the Traffic upon the respective Railways in Passengers and Goods, the Amount of the authorized Share and Loan Capital, and the Number of Accidents and Injuries to Life on all the Railways open during the Year ended the 31st December, 1861. The following comprises the Accounts of the Principal Lines only, and of the Total for the Respective Countries and the United Kingdom :—

	No. of Miles open Dec. 31, 1861.	Number of Passengers.	Goods Traffic.		Receipts from Passenger Traffic.	Receipts from Goods Traffic.	Total Receipts from all Sources of Traffic.	Total working Expenses.	Net Receipts.	Proportion per cent. of Expenditure to Total Receipts.	Rolling Stock Dec. 31, 1861.	Total Capital raised by Shares and Loans, Dec. 31, 1861.
			Minerals.	General Merchandise.								
ENGLAND AND WALES.												
Bristol and Exeter	113	1,468,672	Tons. 197,639	Tons. 303,035	£ 222,587	£ 122,709	£ 345,296	£ 181,745	£ 163,551	53	1,233	£ 3,961,000
Eastern Counties	647	9,866,232	709,986	1,396,142	725,876	668,238	1,394,114	719,806	674,308	52	8,932	12,662,000
Great Northern	405	4,573,423	1,498,654	1,577,883	658,699	867,218	1,465,917	736,445	729,472	50	10,460	11,994,000
Great Western	604½	8,692,680	2,441,118	1,875,187	1,230,400	918,696	2,149,096	1,007,107	1,141,989	47	10,567	28,181,000
Lancashire and Yorkshire	375	16,205,019	2,655,498	2,655,498	758,290	1,119,062	1,877,352	866,351	1,011,001	46	12,260	19,272,000
London and Blackwall	5	8,711,590	3,587	213,796	78,572	10,688	84,260	38,305	45,955	45	74	2,013,000
London, Tilbury, and Southend	45	1,631,160	3,457	44,454	46,250	8,008	54,258	32,240	22,018	59	...	800,000
London and North-Western	1,054	16,853,706	5,381,926	3,327,377	2,164,197	2,590,788	4,754,985	2,357,212	2,397,773	50	22,205	37,600,000
London and South-Western	456	7,655,487	391,995	637,238	824,307	37,938	1,137,245	567,254	569,871	50	4,798	12,315,000
London, Brighton, & South Coast	226	10,558,655	297,938	384,031	723,859	170,645	894,504	437,733	456,771	49	3,997	10,147,000
London, Chatham, and Dover	87	2,350,575	...	106,059	84,594	11,412	96,006	67,189	28,817	70	625	4,527,000
Manchester, Sheffield, and Lancashire	179	3,015,961	611,261	808,499	208,315	386,765	590,020	309,968	307,317	52	28,115	9,262,000
Midland	633	9,113,118	4,129,910	3,075,597	737,314	1,477,142	2,214,456	922,386	1,292,070	42	12,218	21,794,000
North Eastern	789	8,716,027	6,972,524	2,377,829	756,634	1,275,570	2,038,504	933,187	1,099,017	46	25,440	22,680,000
North London	84	6,484,173	388,817	436,385	101,080	79,010	180,090	87,443	92,648	49	575	1,450,000
North Staffordshire	143	1,414,923	625,959	560,390	92,982	187,445	280,439	159,928	130,511	57	2,556	5,420,000
South Eastern	286	11,588,827	161,159	583,233	828,379	275,384	1,103,713	532,458	571,255	48	4,119	12,425,000
South Wales	173	1,317,334	1,455,847	384,122	179,427	203,305	382,362	241,669	141,683	63	...	4,700,000
West Midland	212	2,296,646	897,651	590,157	149,016	206,276	355,292	173,673	181,719	49	3,848	6,833,000
Total, England and Wales	7,820½	146,197,372	51,617,741	25,074,982	11,246,472	12,776,456	28,991,306	11,802,349	12,188,857	49	176,431	...

SERIES D.

Return by the several Railway Companies in England and Wales—continued.

No. of Miles open, Dec. 31, 1861.	Number of Passengers.	Goods Traffic.		Receipts from Passenger Traffic.	Receipts from Goods Traffic.	Total Receipts from all Sources of Traffic.	Total working Expen- diture.	Net Receipts.	Proportion per cent. of Expendi- ture to Total Receipts.	Rolling Stock, Dec. 31, 1861.	Total Capital raised by Shares and Loans, Dec. 31, 1861.	
		Merchandise										
		Minerals.	General									
SCOTLAND.												
Caledonian	238	3,573,609	3,506,672	756,783	£ 263,555	£ 557,914	£ 821,469	£ 355,970	£ 465,499	43	6,987	£ 9,330,000
Dundee, Perth, and Aberdeen Junction	35	363,377	97,223	140,783	20,201	37,213	57,414	26,102	31,312	45	516	...
Edinburgh and Glasgow	132	2,160,991	1,341,514	605,250	185,383	187,218	372,601	170,020	202,581	45	3,106	4,400,000
Edinburgh, Perth, and Dundee	89	1,741,150	513,756	275,655	82,639	119,579	202,318	91,716	110,502	45	1,976	3,360,000
Glasgow and South Western	232	1,906,021	2,475,326	320,104	142,952	307,139	450,091	219,546	230,545	49	4,945	4,823,000
Great North of Scotland	132	889,657	114,255	183,216	57,462	57,664	115,126	48,216	66,910	42	952	1,309,000
North British	216	1,995,420	377,872	650,302	138,826	213,658	352,484	157,287	195,197	45	4,011	5,876,000
Scottish Central	66	917,937	340,765	416,560	79,072	138,126	217,198	83,825	133,373	39	1,585	1,857,000
Scottish North Eastern	129	962,587	244,806	307,696	98,058	123,109	221,167	103,814	117,353	47	3,011	2,729,000
West of Fife Railway and Har- bour	16	10,068	219,846	7,247	234	10,429	10,663	6,032	4,631	57	287	116,900
Total, Scotland	1,626	17,244,557	11,766,609	4,101,938	1,172,121	1,923,313	3,095,434	1,398,849	1,696,434	45	31,979	...
IRELAND.												
Belfast and Northern Counties	136	965,273	48,339	150,266	60,913	42,920	103,833	45,994	57,839	44	676	1,046,000
Dublin and Belfast Junction	63	291,911	...	125,000	5,221	21,759	73,980	26,663	47,317	36	290	1,015,000
Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford	50	3,475,147	1,410	23,819	107,505	5,375	112,880	47,914	64,966	42	375	958,000
Dundalk and Enniskillen	130	334,099	...	168,408	42,091	48,374	90,465	38,526	51,939	43	478	834,000
Great Southern and Western	361	1,006,144	58,196	325,081	271,488	172,036	443,524	191,697	251,827	43	1,895	5,198,000
Midland Great Western of Ireland	240	582,606	19,172	159,343	129,590	103,411	232,001	94,735	137,266	41	1,009	2,962,000
Ulster	93	814,622	25,998	149,602	57,284	47,740	105,024	46,284	58,740	44	515	1,160,000
Waterford and Limerick	169	668,855	33,144	146,043	55,380	50,669	106,249	51,231	55,018	48	600	1,445,000
Total, Ireland	1,423	10,679,210	220,084	1,461,973	907,882	540,111	1,447,993	642,139	805,854	44	6,715	...
Total, United Kingdom	10,869	173,721,139	63,604,434	30,633,893	13,326,475	15,239,880	28,534,638	13,843,397	14,691,296	48	215,125	363,327,398

Distribution of the Working Expenditure.

	Length of Line open on 31st Dec. 1861.	Maintenance of Way.		Locomotive Power.		Repairs and Renewals of Carriages and Waggon.		Traffic Charges (Coaching and Merchandise.)		Rates and Taxes.		Other Charges.		Total Working Expenditure.
		£	Proportion per Cent.	£	Proportion per Cent.	£	Proportion per Cent.	£	Proportion per Cent.	£	Proportion per Cent.	£	Proportion per Cent.	
England and Wales	7,820	2116,736	17.94	3,368,020	28.55	1,048,049	8.80	3,379,215	28.63	451,782	3.83	1,638,537	12.17	11,802,349
Scotland	1,626	289,761	20.71	381,212	27.25	140,416	10.04	323,691	23.14	61,370	4.39	202,399	14.47	1,396,349
Ireland	1,423	136,180	21.20	187,032	29.13	50,043	7.79	164,452	25.61	82,067	4.99	72,365	11.28	642,139
United Kingdom, 1861	10,869½	2,542,677	18.37	3,936,264	28.44	1,238,518	8.94	3,867,358	27.94	545,219	3.94	1,713,301	12.37	13,843,357

Traffic.

	Proportion per Cent of the Number of Passengers.				Proportion per Cent of Receipts from Passengers.				Proportion per Cent of Total Receipts derived from Passenger Traffic and from Goods Traffic respectively.			
	1st Class.		2nd Class.		3rd Class including Parliametry.	1st Class.		2nd Class.		3rd Class including Parliametry.	Season Ticket Holders.	
	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class including Parliametry.	2nd Class.		1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class including Parliametry.	2nd Class.		Passenger Traffic.	Goods Traffic.
England and Wales	12.39	31.11	56.50	35.09	35.55	26.90	35.09	35.55	2.47	46.82	53.18	53.18
Scotland	13.77	11.91	74.33	16.73	54.87	25.97	16.73	54.87	2.43	37.87	62.13	62.13
Ireland	13.93	34.98	51.69	34.77	37.18	23.76	34.77	37.18	2.29	62.70	37.30	37.30
United Kingdom	12.62	29.44	57.91	33.47	37.33	26.75	33.47	37.33	2.45	46.65	53.35	53.35

Accidents.

	Killed.		Injured.		Total.		Passengers.		Servants.		Trespassers &c.	
	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class including Parliametry.	2nd Class.	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class including Parliametry.	2nd Class.	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class including Parliametry.	2nd Class.
England and Wales	216	79	836	1,052	837	26	5	837	144	40	71	71
Scotland	29	8	39	78	26	6	37	26	23	9	9	9
Ireland	284	883	1,167	868	207	92	92	868	207	92	92	92

COMPASS COMMITTEE.

Third Report from the Liverpool Compass Committee to the Board of Trade, 1857-1860.

THE following final report on the magnetism of iron ships, prepared by the Liverpool Compass Committee and addressed to the Board of Trade, was presented to Parliament by command in 1862:—

The four years which have passed since the second Report was presented have afforded so many opportunities for acquiring further information, and have added so much to the experience of the Committee on this subject, that they have thought it desirable to briefly review their former communications, and see how far they may now require modification. Having made this retrospection, the Committee feel great satisfaction in reporting that it only remains for them to confirm their previous deductions, and to append the results of their more recent investigations.

The chief points already insisted upon are:— That the magnetism of iron ships is distributed according to precise and well-determined laws: that a definite magnetic character is impressed upon every iron ship while on the building slip, and is never afterwards entirely lost: that a considerable reduction takes place in the magnetism of an iron ship on first changing her position after launching; but afterward that any permanent change in its direction or amount, is a slow and gradual process: that this original magnetism of an iron ship is constantly subject to small fluctuations from change of position, arising from new magnetic inductions: that the compass errors occasioned by the more permanent part of a ship's magnetism may be successfully compensated, and that this compensation equalizes the directive power of the compass needle on the several courses on which a ship may be placed. These deductions were founded on observations and experiments made in port.

The principal topics which remained for discussion and inquiry were, the effect of heeling on the compasses of iron ships, and the changes which occur on change of magnetic latitude, so far as these could be determined by the collation and discussion of observations made at sea by those captains of iron ships who had co-operated with the Committee. So much difficulty attended the latter, arising from scantiness of material, as well as apparent discrepancy in the results, that at the time the Report for 1856 was completed it was considered that the best, if not the only mode of completing this part of the subject, would be to send the secretary one or two voyages by steamer to Alexandria, to make the necessary experiments, this being the shortest voyage which would include the requisite magnetic conditions. It is believed, however, though these experiments are still desirable, that enough has now been determined to practically settle all those points which the Liverpool Compass Committee were expected to investigate.

In considering the compass deviations which arise from heeling in iron ships, it was early a subject of remark that the evidence before the Committee generally indicated an attraction of the north end of the compass needle to the high or weather side of the ship, in whatever direction she listed, while the published experiments on this subject, made on board the *Bloodhound* by direction of the Admiralty, showed, on the

contrary, a deviation of the needle towards the lee-side, and of comparatively small amount. The reports of merchant captains were in consequence received with some degree of caution, until they eventually became so numerous, and so consistent, as to demand the immediate action of the Committee. It was decided, therefore, that the Committee should defray the heavy expense of heeling and swinging a large iron ship, if the owners could be induced to lend one for the purpose. As the observations made by Captain Leitch on board the s. s. *City of Baltimore*, referred to in the preceding report, showed that his ship would be desirable for the purpose, a deputation was instructed to wait on the managing owner, Mr. W. Inman, who at once placed this noble ship at the disposal of the Committee, with the very liberal intimation that he would defray the whole of the attendant expenses. Arrangements were immediately made for swinging this ship, and the results proved most conclusively, not only the correctness of Captain Leitch's observations, but that the errors from heeling were so large as to very seriously affect the safe navigation of the ship when not allowed for. Thus the azimuth compass of this vessel, which is placed about four feet above the deck house, nearly eleven feet above the deck, and thirty feet before the mizen mast, when the ship's head was placed north, correct magnetic, showed a deviation to the west of $7^{\circ} 30'$; when she was heeled 10° to starboard the deviation was $25^{\circ} 30'$ to the west; and when she was heeled 10° to port the deviation was $15^{\circ} 30'$ to the east; showing a difference of 41° , due to heeling alone, without in any way changing the direction of the ship's head; or an average change of 2° of deviation for each degree of heel! This was about the maximum change for the azimuth compass, for it was found that when the ship's head was east or west by compass, there was practically no change of deviation from heeling, and that the change gradually increased as the ship's head approached north or south by compass.

After giving the details of these and other observations, the Committee reported that the *general* effects of heeling on the deviation of the compass in iron ships may be stated as follows:

1. The maximum deviations from heeling will occur in iron ships when they are upon or near northerly or southerly compass courses. They will decrease as the ship approaches easterly or westerly compass courses. There will practically be no deviation from heeling when ship's head by compass is East or West.

2. In ships built in this country, with their head towards any point between W.S.W. and E.S.E. by way of North, the north end of the compass needle deviates towards the high or weather side of the ship, and, other things being the same, to the greatest extent in ships built with head at or near North. In these ships the deviation from heeling will increase as the ship attains greater North magnetic latitude, or even change its name.

3. In ships built with head between S.W. and S.E. by way of South, the deviation from heeling will usually be small in North magnetic latitude, and the north end of the needle will generally be attracted towards the low side of the ship. The deviation from heeling in these ships will increase as they approach South magnetic latitude.

4. In ships built in positions intermediate to those named in sections 2 and 3, the deviations will usually be small in ordinary North latitudes, and are not likely to be very large in ordinary South latitudes.

5. To test whether a ship's compasses will be affected by heeling or not, she should be listed over while her head is at or near North or South, both to port and to starboard, as in some cases there may be a moderately large deviation from heeling as the ship inclines in one direction, and very little or even none, when the ship is heeled the opposite way. The trial should be made with head North if the ship was built with head northerly, and with head South if built with head southerly. This precaution will be most necessary when the compass is near the stern. The deviation from heeling on the intermediate points may be approximately found by multiplying the maximum deviation from heeling into the sine of the angular distance of the point in question from East or West.

6. An approximate idea of the extent to which a ship's compasses will be affected by heeling, may be obtained by dipping needle and vibration experiments, without actually heeling or swinging a ship, by persons who have acquired previously some experience in these experiments and in the magnetism of iron ships; but until further data on this subject are accumulated the most satisfactory course is to swing every new iron ship with a list to port and to starboard, as well as upon an even beam.

The following additional remarks on quadrantal deviation are offered as the result of observations made by the Committee:—1. Quadrantal deviation may be large in amount in a small ship, and small in a large ship, and the reverse; 2. Generally it is larger in amount in the middle of a large ship than in positions nearer to the ends; 3. It decreases rapidly as the compass is raised above the deck, and at a certain height above it may change from plus to minus; 4. In the usual positions for a compass the quadrantal deviation is almost invariably plus, but it may be minus in a compass placed over a hatchway or skylight, or on the bridge between the paddles of a paddle-wheel steamer, or, as before stated, at some height above the deck, as on a mast. Plus quadrantal deviation is so generally observed because the compass is relatively so much nearer to the transverse than to the fore-and-aft iron of the ship; to the sides than to the ends of the ship. It is in fact the amount by which the earth's magnetic induction in the transverse iron of the ship exceeds the induction in the fore and aft iron, as felt at the station of the compass. It is the difference or resultant of two mutually opposing forces which may exist in different proportions in ships of the same size, and which must necessarily vary as the relative distance of the compass from these forces is changed.

The Committee, however, would not countenance the supposition that any complete explanation has yet been given why the quadrantal deviation is so much greater in some ships than in others, or why it should be so much greater in some quadrants of the compass than in the adjacent ones in the same vessel. Neither would they have it supposed that the quadrantal deviation can be taken as a measure of the susceptibility of the ship for magnetic induction, except in ships of precisely the same size and construction; much less that it affords any indication of the capacity of the ship for sub-permanent magnetism, as it is believed that these two qualities exist together in different proportions in different kinds of iron. It would also be premature to suppose that either susceptibility to induction or capacity for retaining magnetism may be taken as an index to the quality of the iron. Specimens of very good iron have been found to possess both qualities largely.

It has been long known that iron and some other metals undergo a molecular change in the course of time, and become more crystalline and less able to bear concussion, and that this condition may be hastened by vibration. Mr. Airy, in his first paper on the magnetism of iron ships, alludes to the possibility of this change being accompanied by a corresponding change in the ship's magnetism, and urges this as a reason for keeping a sufficient register of the magnetic condition, and the circumstances attending the building of all iron ships. The particulars which the Committee have been able to collect on some branches of the subject since 1855 will, it is believed, afford an appropriate commentary on this recommendation. They will at least serve as an index to the mass of information which would now have been available had the complete records, as proposed, been commenced in the year the paper appeared, 1839.

The attention of the committee has necessarily been drawn to the question of quality of iron, as affecting the magnetism of the ship; but their experience is not sufficiently generalized for publication, even if this part of the subject were free from the difficulty which always exists when the property of other persons has to be commented upon. The following extract is taken from the paper now alluded to:—"It is believed by practical men that the state of malleable iron changes from time only. If this be certain, and if the notion just mentioned be plausible (that permanent magnetism in iron depends on an artificial arrangement of the particles of the metal), it seems sufficiently probable that the independent magnetism of the ship will change with time. This consideration enforces strongly the necessity for periodical examination, as suggested above. Such examination may possibly have an advantage beyond the correction of the compass for the time. An important change in the magnetism may indicate an important alteration in the quality of the iron, and may serve as a warning to be cautious of trusting to the strength of the ship in critical circumstances."

Changes in the magnetism of new iron ships, and change from keeping a ship for some time in one position, while undergoing repair, and from concussion, were adverted to in the last Report, and some examples were also given. The following examples are selected from cases which have been observed since:—

The *Aphrodita*, built head to east, was kept, after launching, with her head as much as possible in the opposite direction. When nearly ready for sea she was swung, and the deviation towards the starboard side of the ship, by the Admiralty standard compass, amounted to $17^{\circ} 45'$. She then was put into graving dock, and remained for some time with her head about $S. 75^{\circ} E.$; on being swung after this, the deviation to the starboard side was found to have increased to $21^{\circ} 30'$, showing an increase of $3^{\circ} 45'$ by keeping her head to the eastward. After remaining a few days longer with her head eastwardly she was removed into the river. While going out of dock she came into violent collision with the pier, her head at the time being rather to the south of west. On again swinging her before she sailed on her first voyage the deviation to starboard was found to be reduced to $17^{\circ} 52'$. This was in 1858. In November 1860, after making two voyages to Calcutta, she was refitted in graving dock, with her head $N. 75^{\circ} W.$, and then lay for a short time with her head to the north. On swinging her after this, the attraction to starboard was found to be only $2^{\circ} 13'$. The deviations towards the stern on these four occasions were respectively $12^{\circ} 5'$, $10^{\circ} 7'$, $9^{\circ} 30'$, and $4^{\circ} 10'$.

The ship *Sarah Palmer* was built at Warrington in 1855, of Staffordshire iron, and with her head about E.S.E. The standard compass was placed above a deck-house between the main and fore masts, and was about 12 feet above the deck. The deviation here was towards the head and to the starboard side. After a voyage to Calcutta the ship was re-swung, and the deviations were found to be very nearly the same as at first. The deck-house was afterwards removed, and the standard compass was then placed between the main and mizen masts, but about the same height above the deck. In this position the deviation towards the starboard side was nearly the same as at the first station, but the fore-and-aft attraction was towards the stern instead of towards the bow. The deviations here were equally as permanent as at the first position. During the summer of the present year however, she underwent a thorough refit, while in graving dock, with her head to the westward, and a doubling, consisting of two rows of plates, was added to each bilge. On swinging her, when she was again ready for sea, it was found that the magnetism retained by the port side of the ship was sufficient to completely cancel the old deviation of the needle towards the starboard side, which in 1858 was $6^{\circ} 30'$.

Both of these ships were built of iron of superior quality though of different retentive power for magnetism. The reduction in the transverse magnetism of one ship appears to have been gradual, but to have nearly disappeared after two voyages to Calcutta. The other appears to have retained much of her original magnetism during eight voyages to Calcutta, but it disappears through the hammering and concussion she received while in the graving dock with her head in the opposite direction to that in which she was built.

A notable instance of an iron ship being fitted for sea in nearly the same position as that in which she was built, and showing changes in the deviations of her compasses immediately she is removed from this position, is afforded by the *Great Eastern* steamer.

It was thought desirable by this Committee, on account of the size of the *Great Eastern*, and the enormous quantity of iron used in her construction, that some record should be made of the magnetic elements of this immense vessel. The secretary was therefore instructed to make as many experiments for this purpose as circumstances would permit, and it will be sufficient to mention the general results. Most of the observations were made jointly by the secretary and Mr. Evans of the Admiralty Compass Department, to whom the Committee are much indebted for his able and zealous assistance in this as in other departments of the Compass inquiry. The Committee have also to thank the directors and other gentlemen connected with the ship for the facilities which they afforded for these experiments.

As was anticipated, from the previous experiments of this Committee, the deviations observed in the Thames did not correspond with those made the same day at the Nore. Those observed two days afterwards at Portland showed a more decided change, both in the amount and direction of this ship's magnetism. A still further change in amount and direction is exhibited by the observations made about six weeks afterwards at Holyhead, and a yet greater change was observed by Mr. Evans at Southampton, about eight months later.

That the magnetism of this ship has undergone a further change during her voyage to and from America can admit of no doubt. It must, however,

be remembered that these changes, though very decided, afford little support to the assertions which have sometimes been made of *sudden* changes in the deviations of a ship's compass while at sea. It must also be remembered that these changes occurred in a new ship, one fitted while lying in the same direction as that in which she was built, and one built in a direction which is specially subject to changes of this kind. The northern polarity of the vertical iron near the stern of iron ships built with their head more or less to the south in this magnetic latitude is in constant opposition to the vertical induction of the earth in this hemisphere.

Towards the close of their last Report this Committee ventured to suggest, for the consideration of the Board of Trade, a mode by which it was thought a great deal of information could easily be collected on the present system of compass correction and compass management in iron ships. It is believed that this part of the subject still requires examination.

The views of the committee have, however, been so ably expressed by one of the highest authorities on the magnetism of iron ships, that they prefer on this occasion to quote the following passage from Mr. Archibald Smith's introduction to Dr. Scoresby's journal of his voyage in the *Royal Charter* :—

“The Board of Trade has lately directed the attention of the mercantile marine to this subject in its publications (deviations of the compass), but it has not yet taken up the subject in that systematic and continuous way to which the Report of the Liverpool Compass Committee points as desirable. That this might be done with great advantage, and with little more expense than that incurred by the Liverpool Compass Committee during its existence, does not admit of doubt. Whatever difference of opinion may be entertained as to applying correctors to the steering compasses of iron ships, it can hardly admit of question that every iron ship should have at least one compass removed as much as possible from the influence of iron, and not corrected by magnets, and should be swung at the beginning and end of every voyage of any length, and the deviation of the uncorrected and corrected compasses (if any) observed. No man is competent to command an iron ship who is not competent to make these observations; and if these observations were transmitted to the Board of Trade, and systematically reduced, and discussed and published, most valuable results would certainly be obtained. It may be added that the observations so made would furnish a test of the care, skill, and good faith of the captain who made the observations, as the process of reduction shows almost infallibly the genuineness and correctness of the observations.”

Undoubtedly the best practical corrective for errors of the compass of all kinds is to be found in a competent and careful captain. How to make the captains and future officers of iron ships more competent in this special department of their very varied duties deserves the most careful attention. A fair knowledge of the elements of magnetism and mechanics may, it is thought, be reasonably required in the commander of an iron ship. The practical mode of correcting the compass is so simple, and may be acquired in so short a space of time, that every officer in an iron ship might be expected to show practically that he can perform this operation.

Only those who have made it a subject of inquiry can form a correct idea of how large a proportion of the complaints respecting the compasses of iron ships have reference to their sluggishness and want of directive power. Either by celestial observation, or by the “inverse” method, before alluded

to, the correct direction of the ship's head is usually very approximately ascertained. What is chiefly required is a steering compass, which in all latitudes and in all directions of the ship's head shall have enough directive power for the wants of the man at the wheel. It is to produce this desirable result that the committee have already recommended the introduction of a vertical compensating bar in the construction of iron ships, and that they now recommend the officers of iron ships to master for themselves the mode of properly applying a compensating magnet whenever it may be required at sea.

But not unfrequently the reported compass errors of iron ships arise from purely mechanical causes, which have no connexion with the ship's magnetism. They are sometimes due to cracked or holed agates, but more commonly to worn pivots, with needles which have never had or have lost their proper directive power. An opinion prevails with some compass makers that the steel pivot for the card should not be hardened, and a compass maker of some note actually refuses to supply any but pivots of soft steel, except by special request. The objects sought are stated to be preservation of the agate cap and steadiness of the card. Lapidaries and gem engravers consider that the soft metal would have the opposite effect; and any steadiness in the card which is due to a blunted pivot must necessarily be at the expense of accuracy.

The number of cases which have come before this Committee of deviation arising from blunted and worn pivots is such as to leave no doubt that this is a most prevalent source of error and bad steering. In one case, in a screw steamer in active employment, the pivot had not even been examined for about eight months; in another screw steamer the pivot had not been changed or sharpened for nearly twelve months; and in a third case the agate cup in which the pivot rested had been filled up with brickdust, for the purpose, it was stated, of steadying the card, so that when examined it was found that the vibration from the screw and the grinding of the brickdust had made a hole completely through the agate. In the last instance the captain had rectified a supposed error of two points by placing the compensating magnet in a position very much nearer the compass card; so near, in fact, as to produce an error of the same extent.

The cases quoted refer to steering compasses, which are said to receive less attention in some ships in consequence of the courses being set by a standard compass, and because an officer is always placed, in well-regulated ships, to see that the course by the standard compass is strictly kept; but the standard compass itself is not free from the same source of error, and more especially a standard mast compass, as mast compasses are often placed in a position not easily accessible, and where they are seldom examined until something connected with them goes conspicuously wrong.

While these causes of error are prevalent, there will constantly be reports of deviation from "the attraction of the land," of "compass disturbance from fog," of "unusual aberration," of "indraught," and the other unfounded or imaginary pretexts which are now put forward when an iron ship gets stranded.

In some cases shipowners instruct the nautical instrument maker to examine the ship's compasses after each voyage. The compasses are then collected, and taken to the workshop, but not always with the desired result, as the Committee have witnessed instances (where the instruments have probably been put into the hands of apprentices or unskilful workmen)

of the compasses coming back to the ship with the needles on the card placed with their poles in opposite directions; with the pivots longer or shorter than they should be, so that the point of suspension of the card is no longer in the plane of the gimbals; with the needles and cap fixed on the wrong face of the card, so that the east and west points of the card were reversed. The best and almost the only remedy for these and the other errors belonging to the compasses of an iron ship must, it is believed, chiefly depend on the care and attention of the master, on his knowledge of the principles of magnetism, and on those mechanical properties on which good compass action depends, and especially on his personal attention to those little mechanical but important details, which are so essential to the satisfactory working of this instrument.*

Another matter of some practical importance which has been brought under the consideration of this Committee is the proper time for swinging iron ships, and more particularly for steamers, such as those which trade regularly to the Baltic, to the Mediterranean, or to America, and what amount of dependence the captain should place in the deviation table which is or ought to be supplied to him by the compass adjuster. There appears sufficient reason for requiring that a new iron sailing ship or steamer should be swung immediately before each of the first two or three voyages; that all iron vessels should be swung immediately before the first voyage following any considerable amount of repair; whenever a change has been made in the position of the standard compass; when there is a change of captain, unless the new captain had charge of the vessel during the preceding voyage as chief officer.

Swinging at any other time may, it is thought, be left to the discretion of the captain. A new captain is often not completely master of his position. He wishes before going to sea in a strange ship to be satisfied as to the deviations of her compasses, but fears that his motives or his competency may be suspected if he advises what, under the present system, involves some expense, in addition to the delay of a tide or two in getting the ship to sea. He, perhaps, ventures to allude to the subject, and is at once told that the former captain had sailed her without requiring that she should be swung, and that there was never "any difficulty" with her compasses. The new captain is thus put on his mettle; he makes inquiries of others how they manage, and resolves to use the utmost caution in clearing the Channel. If the weather is favourable he does it without difficulty, and all goes well. The captain has gained experience, and the owners have saved expense and gained despatch. But, on the other side, if the weather is thick and unfavourable, how unsatisfactory and full of anxiety is the position of the captain. He has no means of discovering his error until he is actually in danger; and in the event of a casualty, with whom rests the responsibility?

It must not, however, be forgotten, that the utility of swinging a ship is chiefly confined to assisting the captain in first clearing his port and the neighbouring channels in case of thick weather, and ought not to supersede his making observations for himself whenever he has the opportunity; in short, that the deviations observed in port when the ship is upright and at rest should always be considered subordinate to observations made at sea

* These remarks apply to the compasses of wooden ships quite as much as to those of ships built of iron; and captains of wooden ships often report large compass errors which can only be attributed to similar mechanical causes.

under various degrees of heel of the ship, and in steamers with the addition of the vibration of the screw. These observations are by far the most important, but they must be taken in connexion with all the collateral circumstances.

It has been noticed that strandings have often occurred with steamers on the first voyage after being swung; and it is known that many captains, after making two or three voyages, have a great repugnance to any change being made in the compensation of their compasses. They submit to the ship being swung when the appointed time comes round, but perhaps make no use of the deviation card which is then obtained. By practice, they have found for themselves what error must be allowed on the different courses incident to the voyage; and if the compensating magnets had been removed, they would have had to relearn their courses again. The word "error" is advisedly used here, as it is not compass deviation, properly so called, which they ascertain, but the resultant error from all the causes which have affected the ship's course on the particular trials from which the deduction has been made. Change the circumstances, and the course is no longer made correctly. The course steered is selected as being the mean result of many trials; the causes which operated in each to produce the observed issue were perhaps never estimated, and, as a consequence, there is always a probability of a deviation from the intended course through some of the conditions having been changed. By much care and attention, and frequently through good fortune, accidents from the causes now alluded to are not numerous; but when they do occur they are of so fearful a nature as to challenge public attention and inquiry. Unfortunately, in cases where compass deviations are supposed to have in part occasioned the casualty, too little has been known of the subject to elicit to what extent they have been in fault, or how a recurrence of the accident might be prevented. In a screw steamer when under sail seven distinct causes may have conspired to produce the course which has been "made good," namely,—1. Set of tide or current. 2. Set of the screw. 3. Leeway. 4. Good or bad steerage. 5. Variation of the compass. 6. Deviation of the compass. 7. Extra deviation from the heeling of the ship. Again, the influence of some of these causes varies with the time occupied on the course; others vary in proportion to the distance gone over; but until the captain of the screw steamer is able to estimate how much each cause is likely to affect the course which is to be steered, and the limits within which his estimate is likely to be erroneous, he must ever be subject to much uncertainty as to the result. The experiments on the effect of heeling on the compasses of iron ships recorded in this report, the evidence on the same subject afforded by the logs given in the appendix, and the concurrent testimony of commanders of screw steamers of undoubted ability, all show how important an element this is in shaping a course, and more especially on courses like those between Cape Sable and Cape Race, the coast of Spain and the entrance to the English or Irish Channels, and many others. It is most essential, then, that the captains and officers of iron ships should be well informed on this subject. Where so many imperfectly ascertained elements combine to produce a result, there will always be occasion for care and forethought; and the information which the Committee urge as so necessary does not dispense with the utmost care, but rather seeks to assist by giving it proper direction. The managing owner of a number of iron ships once remarked, "Compasses in iron ships never are and never will be correct, and I do not

want the compasses in my ships to be so. I forbid my captains to suppose it possible, as they would then become careless." The recommendation of this Committee requires the same caution, while it shows on which side danger is to be apprehended. The well-informed captain can thus proceed with confidence under circumstances in which the equally cautious but ignorant captain would have to lie-to or proceed slowly; or, on the other hand, in cases where information on the effect of heeling would counsel a change of course, the ignorant captain might go blindly forward into danger.

Before concluding this report it appears desirable that some explanation should be given of the delay which has occurred in its presentation. It is due to this Committee, as well as to the secretary, Mr. Rundell, to explain, that in the spring of 1857 it was determined to dissolve the Committee at midsummer, and Mr. Rundell was permitted to anticipate its dissolution by accepting another situation, on condition that he should prepare a final report for the Committee by the close of that year. But the heeling experiments made on board the *City of Baltimore* towards the end of 1857 showed that a most important part of the compass investigation would be left very incomplete if the report were closed at the time intended. It was therefore thought advisable to leave the matter entirely to the discretion of the secretary. The preparation of the report has thus depended on his leisure hours and the time that could be spared from other duties, and for the last three and a half years has been altogether an honorary task. The delay occasioned in this way has, however, enabled the Liverpool Compass Committee to present to your lordships a much larger collection of facts and experiments than could at first have been reasonably hoped for, and to practically develop the subject of this inquiry to an extent which it is believed must materially influence the navigation and compass management of iron ships. The report was signed by Thomas Brocklebank, Esq., chairman.

UNCLAIMED WRECK.

Returns of all Sums of Money received by the Board of Trade or by the Receivers of Wreck for them on account of Unclaimed Wreck in right of the Crown, from the passing of the 17 & 18 Vict., c. 104 (the Merchant Shipping Act) to the present time; showing the Net Amount received in each Year and how such Sums have been accounted for and appropriated, &c. (Mr. Rogers.) 25th July, 1862. (456.)

THE receipts from proceeds of unclaimed wreck in right of the Crown sold from January, 1855, to the quarter ending 31st March, 1862, was 109,354*l.* 2*s.* 9*d.*, of which 98,012*l.* 2*s.* was paid to owners, salvors, and others, leaving a balance of 12,317*l.* 2*s.* 7*d.*; less expenditure in excess of income, 975*l.*, 11,342*l.* 2*s.* 7*d.* Of this sum 8000*l.* was paid into the Exchequer, and 3342*l.* 2*s.* 7*d.* remained with the Board of Trade. From 1855 to 1861, 1322*l.* 3*s.* 8*d.*, or 1262*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* net expenditure, was received in the county of Cornwall on account of unclaimed wreck found upon manors of Cornish lords.

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE.

AN ACCOUNT of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS, distinguishing their NATIONALITY, which ENTERED INWARDS and CLEARED OUTWARDS with CARGOES (including their repeated Voyages) in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

Nationality of Vessels.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
British (United Kingdom and Dependencies) ...	22,356	6,590,149	27,066	7,399,621
Russian	436	134,588	417	126,830
Swedish	963	161,778	981	162,954
Norwegian	3,121	657,429	1,974	333,444
Danish	2,634	256,922	3,153	308,597
Prussian	1,652	416,200	1,692	394,624
Mecklenburg and Oldenburg	702	145,583	962	176,102
Hanoverian	861	78,519	1,889	153,757
Hanse Towns	642	289,132	937	347,616
Dutch	1,480	181,858	1,810	259,268
Belgian	298	64,807	385	72,050
French	2,336	196,943	5,070	491,794
Spanish	277	96,968	283	103,381
Portuguese	98	17,668	97	17,514
Sardinian	299	79,127	348	98,123
Sicilian	150	35,963	163	37,752
Austrian	358	118,883	379	122,369
Greek	39	11,292	37	10,404
Other European Countries	82	21,785	112	28,340
United States of America	1,327	1,179,280	1,172	1,052,238
Other Countries in America, Africa, or Asia ...	15	5,216	32	12,384
Total	40,126	10,740,090	48,959	11,709,162

AN ACCOUNT of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS, distinguishing BRITISH and FOREIGN (employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland and otherwise), ENTERED INWARDS and CLEARED OUTWARDS, with CARGOES, at Ports in the United Kingdom, in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

Vessels.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland:—				
British	34,772	5,833,709	34,812	5,761,551
Foreign	64	13,609	68	11,790
Other Coasting Vessels:—				
British	118,618	11,563,978	121,364	11,611,972
Foreign	345	59,064	312	49,917
Total { British	153,390	17,397,687	156,176	17,373,523
{ Foreign	409	72,673	380	61,707
Total	153,799	17,470,360	156,556	17,435,230

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE. 343

AN ACCOUNT of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS ENTERED INWARDS and CLEARED OUTWARDS, with CARGOES (including their repeated Voyages) from and to various COUNTRIES, in the Year ended 31st December, 1862.

Countries whence Arrived, and to which Departed.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
British Possessions:—				
North America	2,028	1,103,232	1,052	549,642
East Indies, including Ceylon, Singapore, } and Mauritius	938	752,398	965	760,085
Australia	147	121,333	451	377,201
West Indies	670	200,417	586	184,122
All other Parts	2,253	402,692	2,505	567,214
Foreign Countries:—				
Russia, Northern Ports	2,874	600,212	1,790	393,667
Russia, Southern Ports	817	278,556	192	77,116
Sweden	2,240	427,945	1,420	236,713
Norway	2,114	336,643	1,227	159,428
Denmark	1,597	167,281	3,830	445,613
Prussia	3,635	669,951	2,958	531,552
Hanover	263	29,983	1,140	111,717
Hanse Towns	1,174	424,977	2,742	669,825
Holland	2,438	484,678	2,954	575,871
Belgium	1,486	257,061	1,279	222,180
France	6,451	863,352	12,137	1,620,419
Spain	1,063	209,931	2,491	518,487
Portugal	997	180,376	992	197,223
Sardinia	123	57,319	820	297,757
Two Sicilies	432	75,307	672	141,720
Austria	139	48,027	260	83,469
Turkish Dominions, including Wallachia } and Moldavia	776	230,361	641	209,344
Other European States	482	96,426	1,118	212,788
Egypt	511	254,785	443	211,400
United States	2,076	1,577,272	1,296	1,253,194
Mexico, Foreign W. Indies, and Central America	806	290,726	1,091	385,707
Brazil	420	119,267	566	181,712
Peru and Chili	316	160,827	253	123,289
Other States in America, Africa, and Asia ...	910	318,755	1,088	410,707
Total	40,126	10,740,090	48,959	11,709,162

ABSTRACT of TONNAGE ENTERED and CLEARED in each Month of 1862.

		Entered.		Cleared.				Entered.		Cleared.	
		British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.			British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.
		Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.			Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Jan. ...	461,637	233,064	458,207	248,713	July ...	690,075	390,584	725,889	396,708		
Feb. ...	301,178	120,699	497,028	257,965	Aug. ...	636,174	556,140	729,560	425,649		
March ...	417,771	232,339	684,655	273,511	Sept. ...	653,796	429,255	691,338	511,171		
April ...	466,494	298,900	682,942	325,131	Oct. ...	664,995	403,846	585,587	376,888		
May ...	540,036	424,129	695,686	382,829	Nov. ...	594,559	484,044	530,754	349,337		
June ...	533,151	287,755	593,894	383,120	Dec. ...	630,283	289,186	524,081	378,519		

EAST GLOUCESTERSHIRE RAILWAY BILL.

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Lords appointed to inquire into the circumstances attending the conduct of William Isaacs, Clerk to Mr. Boodle, Solicitor at Cheltenham; John Preston, Town Crier at Cheltenham; Robert Sole Lingwood, Solicitor at Cheltenham; Charles William Maisey, Clerk to the said Robert Sole Lingwood; and William Boodle, Solicitor at Cheltenham, with regard to the mode of obtaining Signatures to the Petition of Barbara Robinson and others, of Cheltenham, presented on the 22nd of May last, and to report to the House; and to whom was referred the Evidence taken before the Select Committee on the "East Gloucestershire Railway Bill," reported to the House on the 19th of June last, together with the Evidence taken at the Bar of the House on the 27th of June last.

THE committee consisted of Lord Steward, Earl of Stradbroke, Lord Portman, Lord Overstone, Lord Churston. Lord Portman in the chair.

The counsel and parties having been ordered to be called in, Mr. Hope Scott, Q.C., Sir Frederick Slade, Q.C., and Mr. Saunders appeared as counsel for the bill. Mr. Cripps appeared as counsel for the petitioner; Mr. Thomas Crowther Brown and Mr. Wilkinson for Mr. George Parsonage; Mr. Calvert and Mr. Webster for Barbara Robinson and others, of Cheltenham. After examining many witnesses, the committee reported as follows:—

That the committee have met, and considered the subject-matter referred to them, and have examined the said William Isaacs, John Preston, Robert Sole Lingwood, Charles William Maisey, and William Boodle, and report as follows:—

1. That the conduct of the said William Isaacs, John Preston, Robert Sole Lingwood, Charles William Maisey, and William Boodle, in obtaining signatures to the said petition, does not indicate that they have been guilty of wilful misrepresentation in respect thereof.

2. That William Isaacs was not sufficiently careful in the explanations given by him, when obtaining signatures, of the nature and objects of the said petition.

3. That John Preston appears to have acted under the belief that the representations made by him in respect of the said petition were correct.

4. That Robert Sole Lingwood, and Charles William Maisey, his clerk, ought to have been more careful in the instructions given to William Isaacs and John Preston, when they employed them to obtain signatures to the said petition.

5. That Robert Sole Lingwood, as a solicitor, would have acted more prudently if he had paid attention to the rumours communicated to him in reference to the said petition.

6. That the committee see no reason to impute any blame whatever to Mr. Boodle.

And the committee have directed the minutes of evidence taken before them to be laid before your Lordships.

EFFECT OF RAILWAY ON THE ROYAL OBSERVATORY.

Further Report of the Astronomer Royal as to the Probable Effects of the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway on the Royal Observatory in Greenwich Park.

THE Astronomer Royal having learnt from the engineer that there would be no objection to make the following departure from the central line laid down in the deposited plans of the railway:—(1.) To abandon unequivocally the licence of southern deviation, in the western part of the park. (2.) To engage to construct the railway upon the red line marked in the enclosed plan, the railway being still in tunnel, but with a covering of earth of somewhat less thickness than if the railway followed the central or black line.

The minimum distance of the said red line from the transit-circle of the Royal Observatory is marked by the engineer as 1,060 feet, agreeing almost exactly with the measure which has been made under my direction.

In planning experiments for observation of the effect of existing railways, the Astronomer Royal found great difficulty in fixing on any whose circumstances exactly resemble those of the proposed line through Greenwich Park. In similarity of soil, and of shallow covering, he was fairly successful, but he could not find a railway in a shallow tunnel on the one side of a hill so steep as that on which the Royal Observatory stands. It was his belief that this circumstance is unimportant, and that the plane of communication of tremors has respect to the external surface of the ground. He thought it proper, however, expressly to notice this departure in his experiments from the circumstances of the Royal Observatory.

The places which he selected for experiment were the following:—

(A.) The shallow entrance of the tunnel of the North Kent Railway, near to Morden College, Blackheath. The distance of the place of observation from the centre of the railway was 665 feet.

(B.) The Metropolitan Railway, at the upper end of Portland Place. The place of observation was in Regent's Park; its distance from the centre of the railway was 864 feet.

In station (A.) the soil is precisely similar to that of Greenwich Park; the thickness of the tunnel-covering increases from a small quantity at the mouth to about 10 feet. In station (B.) the sides of the tunnel, and a thin covering of the bottom, are of soil similar to that of Greenwich Park, the sub-soil being hard clay.

A telescope furnished with wires in its field of view, is directed downwards to a trough of quicksilver, which is protected from the wind by a glass shade. The rays of light from the wires pass through the object-glass, fall upon the quicksilver, are reflected upwards, and are there viewed by another telescope at which the observer is stationed. When the surface of the quicksilver is undisturbed, the wires of the first telescope are seen well with the second telescope; but a tremor of the quicksilver, entirely undiscoverable in any other way, causes them to become indistinct and disappear. The aperture of the telescope employed is $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches, and the magnifying power of the observing telescope is 120.

On the morning of April 2, observations were made on the North Kent Railway. Their results gave a mean probable duration of obscuration of

wires of 10 s. and a mean limit in excess of the duration of any indistinctness of 1 m. 37 s.

Supposing the speed of the train to be 20 miles per hour, the distances from the train to the disturbed quicksilver are nearly the following:—At total disappearance of the wires, 900 feet or less. At the smallest perceptible disturbance, less than 1,560 feet. The latter number is undoubtedly much too large, as it includes the effect of every accidental disturbance. The fourth experiment alone would give 970 feet.

On the morning of April 4, observations were made on the Metropolitan Railway, and then the results were a mean probable duration of obscuration of wires of 30 s. and a mean limit in excess of the duration of any indistinctness of 1 m. 40 s., from which, as before, the distances are—At total disappearance of the wires, 970 feet or less. At the smallest perceptible disturbance, less than 1,700 feet. The latter number is of little value, as there were many small causes of disturbance.

In regard to the effect of the earth-covering, on which experiments were made by me several years ago, but at a smaller distance from the tunnel, the general impression now left on my mind is, that the saving or protecting power of the earth-covering bears a smaller proportion to the residual disturbance when the distance of the quicksilver from the tunnel is considerable than when it is small.

It will be remarked that the test of tremor which has been used in these experiments, namely, the disturbance of an image as seen by reflection on the surface of quicksilver by the aid of a powerful telescope, is one which will present itself several times every day in the course of the ordinary observations at the Royal Observatory.

All things having been carefully considered, the Astronomer Royal reported the following as his opinion:—First, in regard to the engineering of the railway: I. It is indispensable that the railway pass through the park in a covered tunnel. II. It is indispensable that its minimum distance from the transit-circle of the Royal Observatory exceed 1,000 feet. III. The red line upon the map may be considered satisfactory to this extent, that no serious inconvenience will be produced to the Royal Observatory, although the effect of the railway will undoubtedly be sometimes felt. Even this may be greatly diminished by an administrative provision to which I will allude below.

In the Admiralty letter of March 24, it was suggested for consideration whether there might be advantage in requiring the tunnel to be formed as a complete barrel of brickwork, and in requiring continuous bearing of the rails. It is very difficult to institute discriminating experiments on these points. The Astronomer Royal conversed with some engineers, but he was unable to obtain from them any valid information; and, finally, was of opinion, that the barrel form of the tunnel is unimportant, but that there may be a small advantage in continuous bearing. And he would therefore record as a recommendation—IV. That the rails be laid in continuous bearing.

The Astronomer Royal adverted to the point of administration to which he alluded at the end of the paragraph. It relates to the speed of the trains. The difficulty of making varied experiments upon an active railway was so great that he did not attempt to ascertain the difference of tremor produced by trains running at high speed, and by the same trains running at low speed. But it is perfectly notorious that the trains at high speed produce

far the greater tremor. He therefore deemed it indispensable for the security of the Royal Observatory, that the speed of trains passing through the Park be limited by the Railway Act to a definite rate; he proposed 12 miles per hour. On this the Astronomer Royal remarked, first, that if trains stop at the proposed Croom's Hill Station, this provision would in reality produce no constraint whatever on the railway company, because their average speed through the Park could not exceed 12 miles per hour; secondly, that in the event of trains being run without stopping at Croom's Hill, this provision would cause a delay rarely exceeding one minute of time; thirdly, that the proposed condition is a very slight acknowledgment of the very great concession made by the Crown in permitting the passage of a railway through the Royal Park of Greenwich.

But to make such a provision really efficient, a distinct and summary and easy legal process for enforcing it must be established in the Act. Remarking that, for the security of the company against vexatious proceedings, it is desirable that the power of taking steps to enforce it be limited to the Astronomer Royal or to some person authorized by the Board of Admiralty, he would propose that power be given to such persons to summon the secretary or some officer of the company, for instance, before the Greenwich police court, and that the presiding magistrate be required immediately to decide on the matter, and to punish a proved contravention of the regulation by fine. The Astronomer Royal would not have the smallest difficulty in proving the average speed of any train through the tunnel. On the other hand, as this process would be attended with trouble to him, there is no fear that it would be abused. The Astronomer Royal, therefore, proposed—V. That a clause be inserted in the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway Extension Act, limiting the average speed of each and every railway train during its passage through the tunnel in the Park to the rate of 12 miles per hour. VI. That a clause be inserted in the same Act providing a summary legal process by which the Astronomer Royal or other person authorized by the Board of Admiralty be enabled to lay information against or to summon some defined officer of the railway company, and to proceed against him for immediate recovery of the fine, to be specified in the Act, for contravention of the regulation applying to the speed of the trains.

Finally, the Astronomer Royal proposed as sufficient for the protection of the Royal Observatory,—That it be required that the railway pass through the Park in a tunnel; that the railway take the course through the Park defined by the red line on the map, the rails being on continuous bearing; that the average speed of each and every train while passing through the Park be limited by clause in the Act of Parliament to the rate of 12 miles per hour; that by clause in the Act of Parliament summary legal process be defined for the enforcement of that limitation.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

25° & 26° VICTORIÆ, 1862.

SERIES D.—RAILWAYS, SHIPPING, &c.

UNITED KINGDOM.

RED SEA AND INDIA TELEGRAPH.

CAP. XXXIX.—*An Act for enabling the Commissioners of H.M.'s Treasury to make Arrangements with the Red Sea and India Telegraph Company.* (17th July, 1862.)

MERCHANT SHIPPING.

CAP. LXIII.—*An Act to amend the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854; the Merchant Shipping Act Amendment Act, 1855; and the Customs' Consolidation Act, 1853.* (29th July, 1862.)

The expression, "Beneficial interest, wherever used in the principal Act, to include interests arising under contract and other equitable interest. The tonnage rates under local Acts may be levied on the registered tonnage; steam-ships to carry certificated engineers, the certificate to be of two grades, first-class and second-class: the Board of Trade to cause examinations to be held for the purpose. The third part of the Act to apply to fishing-boats, lighthouse-vessels, and pleasure-yachts. The wages of seamen or apprentices who are lost, with the ship to which they belong, may be recovered by the Board of Trade. The power of cancelling certificate to rest with the Court which hears the case. Regulations now made concerning lights, fog-signals, and sailing rules which owners and masters are bound to obey. And if any collision should take place from breach of the regulations, the ship is to be deemed in fault. Penalties were inflicted on drunken or disorderly passengers as follows:—

(1.) Any person who, being drunken or disorderly, has been on that account refused admission into any duly surveyed passenger steamer by the owner or any person in his employ, and who, after having had the amount of his fare (if he has paid the same) returned or tendered to him, nevertheless persists in attempting to enter such steamer. (2.) Any person who being drunken or disorderly on board any such steamer is requested by the owner or any person in his employ to leave the same at any place in the United Kingdom at which he can conveniently so do, and who, having had the amount of his fare (if he has paid the same) returned or tendered to him, refuses to comply with such request. (3.) Any person on board any such steamer who after warning by the master or any other officer of the steamer molests or continues to molest any passenger. (4.) Any person who, after having been refused admission into any such steamer by the owner or any person in his employ on account of such steamer being full, and who after having had the full amount of his fare (if he has paid the same) returned or tendered to him, nevertheless persists in attempting to enter the same.

(5.) Any person, having got on board any such steamer, who, upon being requested on the like account by the owner or any person in his employ to leave such steamer before the same has quitted the place at which such person got on board, and who upon having the full amount of his fare (if he has paid the same) returned or tendered to him, refuses to comply with such request. (6.) Any person who travels or attempts to travel in any such steamer without having previously paid his fare, and with intent to avoid payment thereof. (7.) Any person who, having paid his fare for a certain distance knowingly and wilfully proceeds in any such steamer beyond such distance, without previously paying the additional fare for the additional distance, and with intent to avoid payment thereof. (8.) Any person who knowingly and wilfully refuses or neglects, on arriving at the point to which he has paid his fare, to quit any such steamer. And (9.) Any person on board any such steamer who does not when required by the master or other officer of such steamer either pay his fare or exhibit such ticket or other receipt (if any) showing the payment of his fare as is usually given to persons travelling by and paying their fare for such steamer : shall for every such offence be liable to a penalty not exceeding forty shillings; but such liability shall not prejudice the recovery of any fare payable by him.

Any person on board any such steamer who wilfully does or causes to be done anything in such a manner as to obstruct or injure any part of the machinery or tackle of such steamer, or to obstruct, impede, or molest the crew or any of them in the navigation or management of such steamer, or otherwise in the execution of their duty upon or about such steamer, shall for every such offence be liable to a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds.

Pilotage authorities to have power to exempt from compulsory pilotage; to alter and reduce rates of pilotage; to arrange the limits of pilotage districts; new lights, &c. under local authorities to be inspected, &c. by Trinity House and general authorities. The owner, or master, or such consignees or agents as have made themselves liable to pay any other charge on account of such ship in any port of her arrival or discharge to be liable for light dues. Consignees to retain light dues paid by them. All light dues levied to be applied for the construction, placing, maintenance, and improvement of lighthouses, buoys, and beacons for which the dues are levied. Summary jurisdiction extended to small salvage cases. The crown right of unclaimed wreck was preserved. The shipowner's liability was limited as follows :—

The owners of any ship, whether British or foreign, shall not, in cases where all or any of the following events occur without their actual fault or privity; that is to say, (1.) Where any loss of life or personal injury is caused to any person being carried in such ship. (2.) Where any damage or loss is caused to any goods, merchandise, or other things whatsoever on board any such ship. (3.) Where any loss of life or personal injury is by reason of the improper navigation of such ship as aforesaid caused to any person carried in any other ship or boat. (4.) Where any loss or damage is by reason of the improper navigation of such ship as aforesaid caused to any other ship or boat, or to any goods, merchandise, or other things whatsoever on board any other ship or boat;—be answerable in damages in respect of loss of life or personal injury, either alone or together with loss or damage to ships, boats, goods, merchandise, or other things to an aggregate amount exceeding fifteen pounds for each ton of their ship's tonnage; nor in respect of loss or damage to ships, goods, merchandise, or other things, whether there be in addition loss of life or personal injury or not, to an aggregate amount exceeding eight pounds for each ton of the ship's tonnage, such tonnage to be the registered tonnage in the case of sailing ships, and in the case of steam ships the gross tonnage without deduction on account of engine room. In the case of any foreign ship which has been or can be measured according to British law, the tonnage as ascertained by such measurement shall, for the purposes of this section, be deemed to be the tonnage of such ship. In the case of any foreign ship which has not been and cannot be measured under British law, the surveyor-general of tonnage in the United Kingdom, and the chief measuring officer in any British possession abroad, shall, on receiving from or by direction of the court hearing the case such evidence concerning the dimensions of the ship as it may be found practicable to furnish, give a certificate under his hand, stating what would in his opinion have been the tonnage of such ship if she had been duly measured according to British law, and the tonnage so stated in such certificate shall, for the purposes of this section, be deemed to be the tonnage of such ship.

Foreign ships in British jurisdiction to be subject to the regulations for preventing collision. And when the regulations are adopted by a foreign country, they may be applied to its ships on the high seas. The fol-

lowing regulations were made respecting the delivery of goods and lien for freight:—

Where the owner of any goods imported in any ship from foreign parts into the United Kingdom fails to make entry thereof, or having made entry thereof, to land the same or take delivery thereof, and to proceed therewith with all convenient speed, by the times severally hereinafter mentioned, the shipowner may make entry of, and land or unship the said goods at the times, in the manner, and subject to the conditions following; that is to say:—

(1.) If a time for the delivery of the goods is expressed in the charter party, bill of lading, or agreement, then at any time after the time so expressed. (2.) If no time for the delivery of the goods is expressed in the charter party, bill of lading, or agreement, then at any time after the expiration of seventy-two hours, exclusive of a Sunday or holiday, after the report of the ship. (3.) If any wharf or warehouse is named in the charter party, bill of lading, or agreement, as the wharf or warehouse where the goods are to be placed, and if they can be conveniently there received, the shipowner in landing them by virtue of this enactment shall cause them to be placed on such wharf or in such warehouse. (4.) In other cases the shipowner in landing goods by virtue of this enactment shall place them in or on some wharf or warehouse on or in which goods of a like nature are usually placed; such wharf or warehouse being, if the goods are dutiable, a wharf or warehouse duly approved by the commissioners of customs for the landing of dutiable goods. (5.) If at any time before the goods are landed or unshipped the owner of the goods is ready and offers to land or take delivery of the same, he shall be allowed so to do, and his entry shall in such case be preferred to any entry which may have been made by the shipowner. (6.) If any goods are, for the purpose of convenience in assorting the same, landed at the wharf where the ship is discharged, and the owner of the goods at the time of such landing has made entry, and is ready and offers to take delivery thereof, and to convey the same to some other wharf or warehouse, the expense of and consequent on such landing shall be borne by the shipowner. (7.) If at any time before the goods are landed or unshipped the owner thereof has made entry for the landing and warehousing thereof at any particular wharf or warehouse other than that at which the ship is discharging, and has offered and been ready to take delivery thereof, and the shipowner has failed to make such delivery, and has also failed at the time of such offer to inform the owner of the goods of the time at which such goods can be delivered, then the shipowner shall, before landing or unshipping such goods under the power hereby given to him, give to such owner or warehouse owner as aforesaid, twenty-four hours' notice in writing of his readiness to deliver the goods, and shall, if he lands or unships the same without such notice, do so at his own risk and expense.

If at the time when any goods are landed from any ship, and placed in the custody of any person as a wharf or warehouse owner, the shipowner gives to the wharf or warehouse owner notice in writing that the goods are to remain subject to a lien for freight or other charges payable to the shipowner to an amount to be mentioned in such notice, the goods so landed shall, in the hands of the wharf or warehouse owner, continue liable to the same lien, if any, for such charges as they were subject to before the landing thereof; and the wharf or warehouse owner receiving such goods shall retain them until the lien is discharged as hereinafter mentioned, and shall, if he fail so to do, make good to the shipowner any loss thereby occasioned to him.

Upon the production to the wharf or warehouse owner of a receipt for the amount claimed as due, and delivery to the wharf or warehouse owner of a copy thereof, or of a release of freight from the shipowner, the said lien shall be discharged.

The owner of the goods may deposit with the wharf or warehouse owner a sum of money equal in amount to the sum so claimed as aforesaid by the shipowner, and thereupon the lien shall be discharged without prejudice to any other remedy which the shipowner may have for the recovery of the freight.

If such deposit as aforesaid is made with the wharf or warehouse owner, and the person making the same does not within fifteen days after making it give to the wharf or warehouse owner notice in writing to retain it, stating in such notice the sum, if any, which he admits to be payable to the shipowner, or, as the case may be, that he does not admit any sum to be so payable, the wharf or warehouse owner may, at the expiration of such fifteen days, pay the sum so deposited over to the shipowner, and shall by such payment be discharged from all liability in respect thereof.

If such deposit as aforesaid is made with the wharf or warehouse owner, and the person making the same does within fifteen days after making it give to the wharf or warehouse owner such notice in writing as aforesaid, the wharf or warehouse owner shall immediately apprise the shipowner of such notice, and shall pay or tender to him out of the sum deposited the sum, if any, admitted by such notice to be payable, and shall retain the remainder or balance, or if no sum is admitted to be payable, the whole of the sum deposited, for thirty days from the date of the said notice; and at the expiration of such thirty days, unless legal proceedings have in the meantime been instituted by the shipowner against the owner of the goods to recover the said balance or sum or otherwise for the settlement of any disputes which may have arisen between them concerning such freight or other charges as aforesaid, and

notice in writing of such proceedings has been served on him, the wharf or warehouse owner shall pay the said balance or sum over to the owner of the goods, and shall by such payment be discharged from all liability in respect thereof.

If the lien is not discharged, and no deposit is made as hereinbefore mentioned, the wharf or warehouse owner may, and, if required by the shipowner, shall, at the expiration of ninety days from the time when the goods were placed in his custody, or, if the goods are of a perishable nature, at such earlier period as he in his discretion thinks fit, sell by public auction, either for home use or exportation, the said goods or so much thereof as may be necessary to satisfy the charges hereinafter mentioned.

Before making such sale the wharf or warehouse owner shall give notice thereof by advertisement in two newspapers circulating in the neighbourhood, or in one daily newspaper published in London and in one local newspaper, and also, if the address of the owner of the goods has been stated on the manifest of the cargo, or on any of the documents which have come into the possession of the wharf or warehouse owner, or is otherwise known to him, give notice of the sale to the owner of the goods by letter sent by the post; but the title of a *bona fide* purchaser of such goods shall not be invalidated by reason of the omission to send notice as hereinbefore mentioned, nor shall any such purchaser be bound to inquire whether such notice has been sent.

In every case of any such sale as aforesaid the wharf or warehouse owner shall apply the monies received from the sale as follows, and in the following order: 1. In payment of any customs or excise duties owing in respect of the goods if sold for home use. 2. In payment of the expenses of the sale. 3. In the absence of any agreement between the wharf or warehouse owner and the shipowner concerning the priority of their respective charges, in payment of the rent, rates, and other charges due to the wharf or warehouse owner in respect of the said goods. 4. In payment of the amount claimed by the shipowner as due for freight or other charges in respect of the said goods. 5. But in case of any agreement between the wharf or warehouse owner and the shipowner concerning the priority of their respective charges, then such charges shall have priority according to the terms of such agreement; and the surplus, if any, shall be paid to the owner of the goods.

Whenever goods are placed in the custody of a wharf or warehouse owner under the authority of this act, the said wharf or warehouse owner shall be entitled to rent in respect of the same, and shall also have power from time to time, at the expense of the owner of the goods, to do all such reasonable acts as in the judgment of the said wharf or warehouse owner are necessary for the proper custody and preservation of the said goods, and shall have a lien on the said goods for the said rent and expenses.

Nothing in this act contained shall compel any wharf or warehouse owner to take charge of any goods which he would not be liable to take charge of if this act had not passed; nor shall he be bound to see to the validity of any lien claimed by any shipowner under this act.

Nothing in this act contained shall take away or abridge any powers given by any local act to any harbour trust, body corporate, or persons whereby they are enabled to expedite the discharge of ships or the landing or delivery of goods; nor shall anything in this act contained take away or diminish any rights or remedies given to any shipowner or wharf or warehouse owner by any local act.

PIERS AND HARBOURS.

CAP. XIX.—*An Act to amend the General Pier and Harbour Act, 1861*
(16th May, 1862.)

The Act lays down further rules relating to the preparation of drawings for any works, the opening of the pier and harbours on payment of the rate to all persons for the shipping and unshipping goods, and the embarking and landing of passengers. It gives power to the Board of Trade to reduce the rates on such piers and harbours, if the profits amount to or exceed 10*l.* per centum per annum; and gives power to the Board of Trade to inspect the accounts, and even to appoint an auditor to audit and examine them.

HARBOURS TRANSFER.

CAP. LXIX.—*An Act for transferring from the Admiralty to the Board of Trade certain powers and duties relative to Harbours and Navigation, under local and other Acts, and for other purposes.* (29th July, 1862.)

PIER AND HARBOUR ACTS.

CAP. LI.—*An Act for confirming with amendments certain provisional Orders made by the Board of Trade under the General Pier and Harbour Act, 1861, and the General Pier and Harbour Act, 1861, Amendment Act relating to Carrickfergus, Deal, Oban, St. Ives, Tobermory, and Hastings.* (29th July, 1862.)

TURNPIKE ACTS.

CAP. LXXII.—*An Act to continue certain Turnpike Acts in Great Britain.* (7th August, 1862.)

TURNPIKE TRUSTS.

CAP. LVI.—*An Act to confirm certain provisional Orders made under an Act of the 15th year of her present Majesty to facilitate arrangements for the relief of Turnpike Trusts.* (29th July, 1862.)

HIGHWAYS.

CAP. LXI.—*An Act for the better management of Highways in England.* (29th July, 1861.)

Certain highway districts may be formed by any five or more trustees of a county, giving notice of the same to the general or quarter sessions. And in each highway district a highway board to be formed, to consist of the waywardens elected in the several places within the district, and of the justices acting for the county, and residing within the district. As soon as a highway district is formed, all the property is vested in the highway board of the district. The highway board to have the power to levy rates.

HIGHLAND ROADS AND BRIDGES.

CAP. CV.—*An Act to transfer the Roads and Bridges under the management of the Commissioners of Highland Roads and Bridges to the several Counties in which the same are situate, and to provide for other matters relating thereto.* (7th August, 1861.)

MILITARY PRISONS.

Report on the Discipline and Management of the Military Prisons, for 1861.
By Major-General Sir Joshua Jebb, K.C.B., Inspector-General.

It were vain to expect that punishment alone will accomplish all that is desirable in the repression of military offences; but there exists sufficient evidence to prove beyond a doubt that the system of imprisonment which has now been in operation upwards of fourteen years has been generally effective for its object. During that period it has been carried out by governors of experience, and superintended by visitors under the general officers in command of districts, whose suggestions have afforded from time to time the opportunity of introducing such improvements as might be required. To whatever extent, however, the discipline may be perfected, and have its share in diminishing crime, there can be no doubt that the preventive measures now in progress for raising the moral standard of the army and improving its efficiency will be found of infinitely higher importance to the service than the best devised scheme of punishment.

Though it is necessary to adopt the most vigorous and exemplary measures in dealing with military offences,—and such measures are usually taken, because crime forces itself on attention, and cannot be neglected for a single day,—yet if the subject be seriously considered, it will be evident that if the questions were taken in the order of their relative importance, efforts should be first directed to the removal of the causes of crime rather than allowing them to follow in the wake of those necessary for its punishment.

To all who take an interest in the soldier and the army, it cannot fail to be a matter of the deepest satisfaction to see that this subject, which from circumstances did not in former times receive the attention to which it had a claim, has for years past been so earnestly considered by the Secretary of State for War and his Royal Highness the General Commanding-in-Chief, and that the measures they have determined upon have been so effectually provided for by Parliament.

The greater the comfort of the soldier in his barrack-room, the greater the attention to his learning every part of his duty in the field, the more fully his time is applied usefully and profitably to himself and the public, and the greater amount of instruction bestowed upon him, the better will be the class of recruits who will present themselves for enlistment, the less will be the crime, and the higher will be the general character of the army. It is no impossible or wild theory to seek the object of making the British soldier as much respected in his quarters as he is admired for his surpassing bravery and endurance in the field.

The measures alluded to are each and all essential, and in their several degrees are calculated to forward this object; and, combined as they are with school instruction, libraries, and rational amusements, the period is not remote when the effects of such improvements as are now in progress will most certainly be visible.

Reference has been made to the time of soldiers being usefully and profitably employed as one means of reducing crime and improving their habits. The means of carrying out such a plan would be to attach to every barrack workshops for the different trades of carpenters, smiths, painters, &c., in which certain men selected from the force occupying

such barracks could be employed, under the direction of the engineer department, in the necessary repairs, or in the execution of the smaller class of new works, the working parties for the performance of labourers' work being taken by roster or from volunteers. The soldiers so employed might be divided into two classes, and receive a moderate rate of working pay, in proportion to the ability or industry they evinced, or for the completion of an allotted task.

This system was in full operation in 1812, when the fortifications on the heights of Dover were in progress, and the result was alike beneficial to the soldier and to the public. A vast amount of work was done at a comparatively small cost; and instead of habits of idleness being induced by the ordinary life of a soldier, habits of industry took their place.

This system is now largely acted upon in the execution of the new forts in the neighbourhood of Antwerp. The soldiers volunteer for the work, and are paid for what they do. Another means of raising the character of the army, namely, the moral and religious training of the men, is this. From experience in the superintendence of large bodies of convicts it seems certain that care judiciously bestowed in systematic instruction never fails, under God's blessing, to produce very favourable results on the feelings and conduct of the many among them, and facts may be adduced to show that soldiers will avail themselves of facilities that are afforded of obtaining such instruction. If it be said that a more full development of the chaplain's department in the army would add materially to the expense, it is not too much to ask of the country to take the same care of the highest interests of the soldier that is bestowed upon the felon. The subjoined extract from the 4 Geo. IV. c. 64, passed in 1823,* will show the views of the legislature, both as regards the appointment of chaplains even to the smallest prisons, and the duties to which I have briefly referred.

Another consideration may be advanced in favour of affording the soldier the best means of moral and religious instruction, combined as far as may be practicable, with industrial training. The shorter terms of service and occasional embodiment of the militia will cause a far greater proportion of those who have spent some years in the army to be mixed up on their discharge with the population of every town and village in the country. Hence the importance of not losing so excellent an opportunity of training them to habits that will render them useful and respectable.

The same military prisons were in operation in 1861 as in the previous year. In March, 1856, a temporary establishment was formed at Aldershot to provide for prisoners from the camp until the new prisons which were then about to be erected could be completed. This temporary arrangement has continued from year to year. Though it is as well organized as circumstances will permit, and has ever been in excellent order, there do not exist there any adequate means for properly enforcing a sentence of imprisonment.

* Fourth Geo. IV. Cap. 64. Clause xxviii.—"And be it further enacted, that the justices assembled in General or Quarter Sessions shall and they are hereby required from time to time to nominate for each prison within their jurisdiction to which this Act shall extend a clergyman of the Church of England to be chaplain, thereof and such chaplain shall frequently visit every room and cell in the prison occupied by prisoners, and shall direct such books to be distributed and read and such lessons to be taught in such prison as he may deem proper for the religious and moral instruction of the prisoners therein, and he shall visit those who are in solitary confinement, &c."

An admirable site has been selected in the neighbourhood of Reigate, on which it has been proposed to erect a large central military prison for the accommodation of prisoners from Aldershot and the adjacent districts; for it must be borne in mind that the average force of the army in Great Britain and Ireland, which, in 1847, when the accommodation was settled, amounted to 67,000 men, has reached during the last four years the following strength, namely:—In 1858, 100,169; in 1859, 105,248; in 1860, 105,157; in 1861, 93,467. The erection of the central prison at Reigate is therefore urgently required, for there can be no question that the discipline of the army has been prejudiced by the delay in making proper provision for the punishment of offenders.

The military prisons in operation, in 1861, were as follow:—England: Chatham, Gosport, Weeton, Devonport, Aldershot. Scotland: Greenlaw (near Edinburgh). Ireland: Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Athlone. Abroad: Gibraltar, Quebec, Halifax (Nova Scotia), Montreal, St. Elmo (Malta), Vido (Ionian Islands), Bermuda, Mauritius, and Barbadoes. Making a total of nineteen military prisons, of which ten are in the United Kingdom, and nine at different foreign stations, the whole being capable of accommodating about 1,800 prisoners.

In 1861, there were admitted 6124 prisoners, being in the proportion of 6·56 per cent. to the force, against 4·08 per cent. in 1860. On an average there were 1084 prisoners in confinement per day, being 1·16 per cent. of the force. The average length of sentences was 57 days. The visitors inflicted for serious offences 20 corporal punishments—810 lashes, and sentenced 17 persons to solitary confinement, and 26 to separate confinement. The 6124 prisoners were of the following ages—844 under 20 years, 4706 from 20 to 30, 553 from 30 to 40, and 21 above 40. Of the 6124 prisoners, 2418 had 2 years and under of service, 2939 under 7 years, 577 from 7 to 14, 173 from 14 to 21, and 17 above 21 years' service. The places of births of the prisoners were as follows—3613 English, 1999 Scotch, and 512 Irish; and the religion—3551 were Protestant, 448 Presbyterian, and 2125 Roman Catholics. The prison character of the prisoners was—5559 good, 225 indifferent, and 340 bad.

The foregoing details exhibit a considerable variation in the prison statistics of 1861 as compared with those of the two previous years; the number of punishments for minor offences has been on the decrease during 1861. The average length of sentences was 99 days in 1849, and 87 in 1854, but it was reduced in 1855 to 77 days, in 1856 to 53 days, in 1857 to 49 days, in 1858 to 53 days, in 1859 and 1860 to 48 days, and in 1861 to 57 days.

The average force in 1861 was 93,467, and there were in this number 2432 desertions, or 2·61 per cent.; 1279 absences without leave, or 1·37 per cent.; 736 guilty of drunkenness, or 0·79 per cent.; 222 guilty of disgraceful conduct, or 0·24 per cent.; and 1455 guilty of other crimes, or 1·56 per cent. During the year crime has been slightly on the increase. The total charge for pay and allowances of prison officers and for the subsistence and washing of the prisoners was 22,431*l*. But the full pay and beer money of prisoners in confinement not issued amounted to 23,359*l*.

In 1861, 2425 soldiers were recommitted, against 2380 in 1860, and 1806 in 1859.

It appears, however, that the number of recommitments was less than in 1852, although it might be expected that as the aggregate number of

soldiers who have been once committed must, year by year, increase for a considerable period after the first formation of military prisons, so the number of recommittals would multiply in a corresponding ratio. That this, however, has not been the case is more decidedly shown by the decrease of the average of total recommittals compared with the total number of admissions into the military prisons in 1851, and is marked to a still greater extent by the decrease of the average of recommittals to the same prisons compared with the total number of prisoners admitted into each prison in 1852.

Drunkenness is, perhaps, the most fertile source of military crime, but the number of committals for this offence has decreased in the year 1861. In that year, in England, on an average force of 65,357 there were 626 committals for drunkenness, or in the proportion of 0·96 per cent., against 0·76 per cent. in 1860, and 0·53 per cent. in 1859. In Scotland, in an average force of 4114, there were 9 committals, or 0·22 per cent. against 0·34 per cent. in 1860, and 0·56 per cent. in 1859. And in Ireland, in an average force of 23,961, there were 101 committals, or 0·43 per cent., against 0·84 per cent. in 1860, and 0·84 per cent. in 1859.

From the abstract of the medical returns of the military prisons at home, it appears that the health of the prisoners during the year 1861 was satisfactory. The proportion of numbers treated for sickness to the total numbers in confinement in 1854 was nearly 21 per cent., whereas in 1855 it decreased to about 15 per cent.; in 1856 it was 17 per cent.; in 1857, 16 per cent.; in 1858, 15 per cent.; in 1859 and 1860 it was only about 13 per cent.; and in 1861, 12 per cent. This result seems to prove that the improved system of prison diet in operation at Aldershot since August 1858, and introduced into all military prisons at home in September, 1861, has had a beneficial sanitary effect.

By returns obtained from the army medical department, showing the average strength of the troops, the number of admissions into hospital, and the number of deaths in the several garrisons in which the military prisons at home are situated, during the years 1852, 1853, 1854, 1855, 1856, 1857, 1858, 1859, 1860, and 1861, it appears that in 1861, upon an average strength of 35,569, the admissions into hospital were 38,181, and the deaths were 289; which gives a ratio of admissions to the average strength of 107 per cent.; deaths, 0·82 per cent.; deaths to admissions of 0·76 per cent. The statistics of the nine military prisons at home show that upon an average strength of 1084, the numbers treated for sickness were 863, and the deaths were 2. This gives a ratio of admissions to the average strength of 79 per cent.; deaths, 0·19 per cent.; deaths to admissions of 0·24 per cent.

As stated in previous reports, there will always appear to be a greater number of cases treated in the prisons in proportion to the average strength than in the army at large, in consequence of the continual admission and discharge of prisoners, and of their endeavours to escape a portion of their punishment by coming forward for treatment upon slight grounds. This is proved by the fact, that of the 863 prisoners treated in the prisons at home during 1861, the greater part were not even placed in the sick ward; they were prisoners who came forward with slight ailments, for which the medical officer treated them without relieving them from the ordinary labour of the prison.

An improved scale of diet, which had been in use in the military prison at Aldershot since August, 1858, was provisionally adopted for prisoners engaged at hard labour in military prisons at home stations in September,

1861. The following is the scale:—*Ordinary Diet*.—The prisoners' diet, when not in solitary confinement, is to be as follows:—Daily, breakfast, 8 oz. of oatmeal, half-pint of milk. Dinner, 9 oz. of Indian meal, half-pint of milk. Supper, 8 oz. of bread, half-pint of milk. *Diet in Solitary Confinement*.—If in solitary confinement by sentence of a court-martial, or in separate confinement, or not employed at severe hard labour:—Daily, breakfast, 8 oz. of oatmeal, half-pint of milk. Dinner, 6 oz. of Indian meal, half-pint of milk. Supper, 8 oz. of bread, half-pint of milk. *Diet after 56 days' Confinement*.—The following scale will be adopted for prisoners after 56 days' confinement:—Hard labour diet. Breakfast, oatmeal, 10 oz.; dinner, Indian meal, 12 oz.; supper, bread, 8 oz. Solitary confinement diet. Breakfast, oatmeal, 8 oz.; dinner, Indian meal, 9 oz.; supper, bread, 8 oz., with half-pint of milk to each meal. On three days of the week, viz., Sunday, Tuesday, and Thursday, the prisoners' diet will be as follows:—Daily, breakfast, 8 oz. of oatmeal, half-pint of milk. Dinner, 8 oz. of beef, without bone, before cooking, 2 lbs. of potatoes or 8 oz. of bread, 1 pint of soup, thickened with 1 oz. of oatmeal, and 2 oz. of vegetables per man, seasoned with pepper and salt. Supper, 8 oz. of bread, half-pint of milk. With the exception of the first class, whose dinner on Sundays will consist of 10 oz. of beef, without bone, after cooking, with potatoes and soup as the others.

When it may be deemed necessary by the medical officer for the health of a prisoner to substitute occasionally bread for oatmeal or Indian meal, the following will be the proportion:—10 oz. of bread in lieu of 8 oz. of oatmeal; 12 oz. of bread in lieu of 9 oz. of Indian meal; 8 oz. of bread in lieu of 6 oz. of Indian meal. Bread and water for prison offences—1 lb. of bread daily, with such quantity of water for drinking as a prisoner may desire.

Notwithstanding the apparent effect of the punishment in causing a considerable average loss of weight, it is remarkable and satisfactory that the number treated for sickness during the year 1861 was proportionately less than in any year since 1850.

The measures for the improvement of the condition of the soldier which have been and still are in progress, and the discharge of many of the worst characters from the army, must be allowed their due weight in judging of the present state of discipline by the amount of punishment. But a comparison of the number of sentences, previous to the establishment of military prisons, and at the present time, affords a very favourable indication of the change that has taken place. In 1843 the number of soldiers imprisoned at any one time under sentence by court-martial, in civil prisons, exclusive of those who might be in confinement by order of commanding officers, was in the ratio of 20 in 1000, and, at the same time, the number of corporal punishments amounted to annually about 5·2, making 25·2 per 1000. In the three years from 1851 to 1854 the number of imprisonments was reduced to eleven per 1000, and in the four years from 1850 to 1854 the average number of corporal punishments had been reduced to 2·5 per 1000, being a little more than one half in both cases, and making a total of 13·5 as compared with 25·2. During the year 1861 it will be found that the average number undergoing imprisonment at any one time in the military prisons and barrack cells amounted to 14·4, and the total corporal punishments in these years amounted to 1·5, making a total of 15·9 per 1000 as compared with 25·2 in 1843.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

25° & 26° VICTORIÆ, 1862.

SERIES E.—LAW, JUSTICE, AND CRIME.

UNITED KINGDOM.

ISLE OF MAN.

CAP. XIV.—*An Act to extend to the Isle of Man the provisions of the Act 18 and 19 Vict., chap. 90, as to the payment of Costs to and by the Crown.* (16th May, 1862.)

HABEAS CORPUS.

CAP. XX.—*An Act respecting the issue of Writs of Habeas Corpus out of England into her Majesty's Possessions abroad.* (16th May, 1862.)

Writs of habeas corpus not to be issued out of England into any colony, &c., not having a court with authority to grant such writ. But this is not to affect the right of appeal to her Majesty in council.

WHIPPING.

CAP. XVII.—*An Act to amend the Law as to the Whipping of Juvenile and other Offenders.* (16th May, 1862.)

When punishment of whipping is awarded, such punishment must specify the number of strokes to be inflicted and the instrument to be used in the infliction of them, and if the age of the offender does not exceed 14 years, the number of strokes must not exceed 12, and the instrument used must be a birch-rod. No offender can be whipped more than once for the same offence, and in Scotland no offender above 16 years of age to be whipped for theft or for crime committed against person or property.

POACHING.

CAP. CXIV.—*An Act for the prevention of Poaching.* (7th August, 1862.) Constable to have the power to search persons without warrant if he has good reason to suspect of his coming from any land where he shall have been unlawfully in search or pursuit of game, or any person aiding or abetting such person, and having in his possession any game unlawfully obtained, or any gun, part of gun, or nets, or engines used for the killing or taking game, and also to stop and search any cart or other conveyance in or upon which such constable shall have good cause to suspect that any such game or any such article is being carried by any such person.

ENROLMENTS FOR THE CONVEYANCE OF LAND.

CAP. XVII.—*An Act to extend the Time for making Enrolments under the Act passed in the last Session of Parliament, intituled, An Act to amend the Law relating to the Conveyance of Land for Charitable Uses, and to explain and amend the said Act.* (16th May, 1862.)

CHANCERY REGULATIONS.

CAP. XLII.—*An Act to regulate the Procedure in the High Court of Chancery and the Court of Chancery in the County Palatine of Lancashire.* (17th July, 1862.)

The Court of Chancery to determine every question of law or fact incident to the relief sought. When questions of facts may be more conveniently tried at assizes, issues may be so directed. The High Court of Chancery may act with the assistance of a common law judge.

ENGLAND.

DISCHARGED PRISONERS' AID.

CAP. XLIV.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the giving of Aid to discharged Prisoners.* (11th July, 1862.)

The justices to have power to grant certificates of approval of prisoners' aid societies, and to revoke or suspend them. When a prisoner is discharged from any prison, the visiting justices may accord the relief to be granted by the certified prisoners' aid society.

CAP. CIV.—*An Act for the Discontinuance of the Queen's Prison and the Removal of the Prisoners to Whitecross Street Prison.* (7th August, 1862.)

JURIES.

CAP. CVII.—*An Act to give greater Facilities for summoning Persons to serve on Juries and for other Purposes relating thereto.* (7th August, 1862.)

All registered pharmaceutical chemists and members of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons, managing clerks to attorneys, solicitors, and proctors actually practising, all subordinate officers in gaols and houses of correction, to be exempted from serving on juries. The clerk of the peace to issue precepts to parish officers by post. The justices clerk to send the jury lists to the clerk of the peace.

DIVORCE COURT.

CAP. LXXXI.—*An Act to make Perpetual an Act to amend the Procedure and Powers of the Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes.* (7th August, 1862.)

BANKRUPTCY ACT.

CAP. XCIX.—*An Act to amend the Bankruptcy Act, 1861.* (7th August, 1862.)

Certain offices were abolished, and allowances were granted to the officers. No judge of county courts to be capable of being elected or of sitting as a member of the House of Commons.

ENGLAND AND IRELAND.

HOMICIDES.

CAP. LXV.—*An Act for the more speedy Trial of certain Homicides committed by Persons subject to the Mutiny Act.* (29th July, 1862.)

The Queen's Bench or a judge may order certain prisoners to be indicted and tried under the provisions of this Act. And upon this order the prisoner shall be removed to the gaol of Newgate in London, or the Richmond Bridewell in Dublin, and indicted and tried in the same manner as if such murder or manslaughter had been committed within the same jurisdiction.

IRELAND.

SUMMARY PROCEDURE.

CAP. XXIII.—*An Act to amend the Summary Procedure on Bills of Exchange (Ireland) Act, 1861.* (3rd June, 1862.)

In actions upon bills of exchange or promissory notes the days for appearing and filing a defence to serve in vacation as well as in term time. The days from the 1st of August to the 20th October to be reckoned days within which the summons and plaints and defence should be filed.

PEACE PRESERVATION IRELAND.

CAP. XXIV.—*An Act to continue the Peace Preservation Ireland Act, as amended by the Acts of the 23rd and 24th Year of Vict., c. 138.* (30th June, 1862.)

UNLAWFUL OATHS.

CAP. XXXII.—*An Act to continue the Act of the 2nd & 3rd Years of Vict. c. 74, for preventing the Administering of unlawful Oaths in Ireland, as amended by the Act of the 11th & 12th Years of Vict.* (7th July, 1863.)

COURT OF CHANCERY, IRELAND.

CAP. XLVI.—*An Act for the better Regulation in certain Cases of the Procedure in the High Court of Chancery in Ireland.* (17th July, 1862.)
The same provisions as in Cap. XLII. for the Court of Chancery in England.

SUMMARY JURISDICTION, IRELAND.

CAP. L.—*An Act to amend certain Provisions of the Acts of the 24th & 25th Years of her Majesty, chap. 97, 99, and 100 respectively, relating to Summary Jurisdiction in Ireland.* (29th July, 1862.)

Penalties now imposed for stealing trees and shrubs growing anywhere, or trees, plants, vegetables severed from the soil or turf fuel, and on persons possessing carcasses of sheep without accounting for the same; or workmen making away with goods, stealing poultry, &c. Assault cases may be proceeded with, although the party aggrieved declines to prosecute. Summary jurisdiction given in cases of assault on peace officers and others.

POLICE AND IMPROVEMENT, SCOTLAND.

CAP. CI.—*An Act to make more effectual Provision for regulating the Police of Towns and populous Places in Scotland, and for Lighting, Cleansing, Paving, Draining, Supplying Water to, and improving the same, and also for promoting the public Health thereof.* (7th August, 1862.)

NEW ZEALAND.

Further Papers relative to the recent Disturbances in New Zealand.

On the 18th March, 1861, the Duke of Newcastle received a despatch from Governor Brown, sending a copy of a letter from William Kingi, showing that he had no desire for peace, and entertaining the confident expectation of being able to exterminate the Europeans. He also sent a copy of a speech by a chief named Benata, uttering the same sentiments. The speech was as follows:—

This is the day in which the great runanga of the Ngatikahungunu tribe assembled to meet the Pakehas of Ahuriri. The mouthpiece of the runangas of Te Pawhakaairo, of Tanenuiarangi, of Waipureku, of Matahiwi, of Te Timu, of Pakowhai, of Te Pakipake, of Potaka, of Te Hauke, of Te Aute, of Waipaoa, of Te Waipukurau, of Eparaima, of Porangahau, of Tautane, of Te Takapau, of Tikokino, is Renata Tamakinikurangi; he proclaimed the words to the Pakehas. Now the root of this assembling is our grief concerning the fighting of the Governor and Wiremu Kingi, now acting at Taranaki. We were here speaking to you in our assembly at this place in those months past, then we said the Governor is wrong. Then we thought, no doubt, he will be listening attentively to the fault-findings of this the *Maori* people; of some, also, of thy own *Pakeha* people. Not so, however; he kept striving assiduously to lengthen out his fighting with W. Kingi. Gathering and collecting soldiers from each and every land, even unto farthest England, in order to destroy those people of ours. Therefore it was that the thought arose within these men to go to Taranaki. With you, also, Pakehas, is this custom—one is a bishop, another is a minister,—one is a Governor, and another is a soldier, and one is a man dwelling quietly; behold me, also, I am one, and my name is *Maori*—for building houses, for raising provisions, for making canoes, for fighting to-day—which thou hast given me; the Church of God is my name, and the Scriptures say—"If one member suffers, all the members feel." The Church is also one; therefore, I say, let me also go thither, to my own, who are being fed by thee with hard food. Better, indeed, if you will consent to one of the ways of disagreement, in order to our having work to do, at Taranaki, wrangle over and rebuke the error of the Governor and of William King—then, indeed, it will be correct. And if it should be seen that the fault is of Wm. King—let us all, Maoris and Pakehas, strive together that he may cast aside his proceedings; and if it should be seen that the fault is of Te Teira, let the Governor cast aside his striving to be angry. Here, indeed, are we also earnestly seeking to find the beauty of thy nation of chiefs, through which thy name has been famed as a people gently carrying on all customs, as a people peacefully judging and rebuking. We were quietly taught by former governors—anger is bad, far better is quiet judgment; but now, in the time of this Governor, quiet judgment is cast aside, and hard and uneatable food is thrust unto us. For lo! so it is, small things, as a basket of potatoes, a bushel of wheat, and a pig, are quietly judged; but the great ones—land and man—are not so. Then it is that we remember that his newspapers tell us,—he himself is our kind father, and the Queen is our gracious mother. But, look a little more; lo! guns, powder, and ball, are the food of my father and my mother, with which she feeds those of her children (at Taranaki); and ships are now

sailing hither, bringing such food. Therefore, O Governor FitzGerald, I go to Taranaki, to condole with those of mine who are being fed with hard food; for I am like the nestlings of the Tui (or "parson-bird")—the dam goes to seek food, which having found, she returns with it, and then the young gape their beaks wide open to receive their food. Now it is that my good will towards that parent of mine has been ended; but if she will look steadily hither on the faulty works of this Governor gun-feeder, powder-feeder, ball-feeder, and take him away, and give me a governor who will feed me with soft and eatable food—that is, with runangas, with quiet judgments, with love, and charity, and good works—it will be better. In the very beginning, the word of my King went forth to the Governor, that the fault between him and Wiremu Kingi should be quietly judged at Waiuku; that there they should see each other, and talk and judge according to the law. Straightway goes away the Governor, arrives quickly at Taranaki, thrusts forth immediately his guns against Wiremu Kingi; hence it is that our observation is clear that the Governor is wrong, because he would not be judged. Then he says, let the Maori judge. Upon this, Waikato goes to look into the wrong, declaring that, if it be truly found that the fault is with Wiremu Kingi, it shall be proclaimed to abandon the piece of land; and if it be truly found that the fault is with the Governor, let W. Kingi mourn aloud. Then, upon the arrival thither of Waikatos, it was seen, lo! the Governor made the wrong; whence followed the fighting at Taranaki. But it is not only through the going thither that the fault of the Governor is to be known. No, no; I have seen it here at Heretaunga, in the purchase system of his servants. Formerly, a very different manner of purchase ruled to that which came after. This was the former manner of purchase: to assemble all men, chiefs and serfs, old men and grannies, women and children, into his presence, that the transfer of the land to the Queen might be open and straightforward. The first (so transferred), the Waipukurau block, correctly done; afterwards, Ahuriri block, correctly done; those were the lands the transfer of which to the Queen was clear and unexceptionable. Then it was understood that such rule of purchase was steadfast; afterwards, however, it went wrong. The error was this, the sale of land by one person—such as Cape Kidnapper block, Aorangi block, Okawa, Turio-tekanaawa, Umuppua, Toutane, and Aropaonui blocks; for thee, indeed, are those lands, but through the faulty purchasing of thy servants; hence, too, we committed wrong towards each other. Afterwards, we quietly completed the transfer of those lands to thee for ever, in order to be a distinguishing mark of love from us to the Governor; at the time saying, put a stop to this system of buying from one person; to which his native land purchase department directly consented. Directly after, however, the land buyers of the Governor leaped quickly forth again to purchase land secretly; then we were of opinion—this proceeding of the Governor is a challenge to us to provoke a quarrel, that there may be a pretext for him through which he may take away our lands; for lo! here is Marutairi, and here is Ngapaeruru, and here is Porangahau—lands which are now borne up by the erroneous sale of one person; for the servants of the Governor would not listen to the words of many. Those lands are now laying by; very nearly, indeed, had we quarrelled about those places upon which names are set. Henceforth and hereafter, by whom, indeed, shall a very little more vexation (be given), and straightway it will suddenly burst forth; lo! the dust-

like commotion increasing forward, even as the present anger at Taranaki. Hence it is that we have said, that this wrong is caused by the Governor. Doubtless you will quickly rejoin:—The natives of this island are seeking a quarrel with the Pakehas; not so, however. If indeed we were desirous of quarrelling, we should have encouraged the plan produced at Wanganui to kill the Pakehas or that Tipa for those at Waingaroa; but such was disowned by me, by the *runanga* of the King, which rebuked thee plainly and openly to thy face. I will not listen to palliating words and excuses in behalf of the Governor, rather do thou listen hither to what we say. Let us all go to Taranaki, and there judge this wrong; then, indeed, my ears will listen. Wilt thou not observe the clearness of those ways of acting of thy foes? Wilt thou incessantly and difficultly struggle on to fight? I indeed will not be as the lick-platter assembly of the Governor; my words are fit and plain, forasmuch as that *runanga* has done wrong. Here is my destroying weapon from the Ngatiraukawa tribe in order to kill Wellington, but such was disowned by me; now the manner of acting of this killing was to be thus,—viz. in the hoisting of the King's colour, if the men who hold with the Governor and the military should fall upon the men of the King and upon his colour (then it was to be). Furthermore, Wanganui also has erred, and this is the fault:—A certain man there dwelling went and collected the wood-work from graves, and burnt such in an earth-oven of his for cooking food; then he called the food which was for his oven in the earth by the names of the King and his coadjutors, namely, Porakoru, Tamehana, Wetini, Epiha, and Rewi, even by the names of all the principal men of Waikato; and this he did that their hearts might be sore, and to turn upon the Pakehas of Wanganui and kill them; and this is the erroneous acting of those very men who went to the Governor's assembly! That man spoke and said (the name of that child was Te Mutumutu), "Finished, finished, finished, for ever and aye." The name of another was Pakau, blocked, blocked, blocked, for ever and aye. It was by the King it was brought to nought, and by us also, all his *runangas*. Here also is another case,—Tipa is the name of this man. He went and cut off the hair from his head quite close, and then he clipped the hair from the dog-skin mat; now this he did to be noticed by his tribe, that they might arise and kill the Pakehas of Waingaroa. But this was brought to nothing by the King, and by us also, thy friends with whom thou art fighting, who plainly confront thee to thy face. So it is again with a part of the Ngatiraukawa tribe, that is with the majority of them, who indeed plainly confront thee to thy face, like myself, who speak plainly to thee; but thou turnest round to find fault with that (instrument) which deals plainly to thy face! Thou turnest thyself to endeavour to set straight and fine the coaxing and deceiving words of that assembly which thou didst call to go even yonder there to speak lies! But as to this here, I shall not do anything of myself, for my word has been concluded on by the King, that all towns are to be to us as Parininihi; enough it is, for the fighting to be at Taranaki alone, at the place where the Governor has struck with the sword. But as to this here, it shall be for the Governor to climb one of those Parininihis, and then it will also be wrong, even as it has been at Taranaki. Here also is another fault of the Governor, even his writing in his newspaper to all chiefs of this island, to assemble all of them to go to Taranaki to put murderers to death; he not discerning that his own doing is murder! for just so indeed he brought Kirikumara with him as a loving

friend. Lo, here, it is said, that Katatore is a murderer. Not so, however, his doing was not murder—but plain dealing. For thus it was; Katatore said, let not his land be transferred to the Pakeha; but David strove earnestly to transfer it. Then Katatore said to both the Pakehas and to David, "Leave alone my land;" but the other still strove to transfer it to the Pakeha. Then it was that Katatore said to David, "Enough! thou still strivest, there is thy gun, let thou and I fight." David, who would not listen, still strove to cut the boundary of the land of Katatore; when he was fired upon (by him), the guns were not directed towards the man, but fired above and fired below; thinking that by making him apprehensive he would cease. But no, he still strove on, and then it was that David was fired at, and was killed: see, this was not murder; this was dealing plainly. But that indeed was true murder, that was done by Isaiah, though it is called an avenging of death, but it is not such. Here, indeed, is avenging, even that which Adam Clarke plainly and quickly did by noon, when he avenged the death of David Naiaua. By noonday they fought quietly, and at the close peace was made firm and fast. But as for this, this doing of Isaiah, which is said to be an avenging of David, it is not so, but real murder done by those two, by Isaiah and by the Governor—an abominable murder of the darkest kind. Further, here is yet another statement concerning Te Teira, who is said to be chief, but such is not the case, he is only of low rank. For I also know that man, that he is a man of little note (as a chief); Wiremu Kingi alone is their great man, heard and known by all tribes: for indeed the name of his father was Reretawhanga-whanga, from whom descended Te Rangitake (W. Kingi), the name of the principal man (of a tribe).

On the 13th April, 1861, another despatch was received from Governor Brown, with a report of an interesting and important conversation between Mr. Smith, the assistant native secretary, and the Waikato Chiefs, Tamati Ngapora and Patara. The love of independence and the patriotism of these men, said Governor Brown, are entitled to our sympathy and respect; but they are not less incompatible with the maintenance of the Queen's supremacy, which is quite as indispensable to the happiness and well-being of the Maories as to that of the Europeans. Collision would be inevitable between two races inhabiting one country, but acknowledging two sovereigns, and claiming to be governed by laws antagonistic to each other. It is needless to say which race would ultimately prevail. Anything like confiscation of land on a large scale is, of course, out of the question; but the murderers of Passmore Ford and the two boys ought to be surrendered.

Again, on the 13th May, the Duke of Newcastle received from Governor Brown, a report of an interview between himself and certain native chiefs, in which the latter proposed that he should make peace with them on certain conditions. But he did not assent to them without some guarantee that the war would not be renewed as soon as the crops had been secured. The following are the notes of interview:—

On Saturday, February 2, 1861, the Chief Ahipene, of Waihuku had an interview with the Governor on the subject of several meetings which had lately been held at Waikato, and especially one at Tamati Ngapora's place, to discuss the question of peace. The Governor stated generally to Ahipene that he was as desirous of peace as the natives themselves were represented to be, provided terms of peace were proposed by the insurgents which should afford security for its permanence.

Ahipene stated that if his Excellency were disposed to entertain the subject, Tamati Ngapora was prepared with other chiefs to wait upon him for the purpose of making certain proposals. It was, therefore, arranged that a further interview should take place on Monday, 4th February.

On the evening of that day, Tamati Ngapora and Ihaka came in, and a preliminary interview took place between the Governor and these chiefs; also Taraia of the Thames, Hone Ropiha of Auckland, Wiremu Toetoe of Waikato, Ahipene of Waihuku, and Patuone of Ngapuhi. Very little occurred of importance beyond expressions on either side of a desire for the restoration of peace, it being agreed that further discussion should take place the next day.

On Tuesday, 5th February, the following chiefs assembled at Government House:—Tamati Ngapora (Ngatimahuta) of Waikato, Ahipene (Ngatiteata and Ngatikahukaka) of Waihuku, Eruera Patuone (Ngatihao) of Ngapuhi, Hone Ropiha (Ngatikoata and Painui) of Auckland, Taraia Ngakuti (Ngatitamatera) of the Thames, Mokena (Ngatimahuta) of Waikato, Hohepa Tamaihengia (Ngatitoa) of Otaki. There were also present the attorney-general (the Hon. Mr. Whitaker), the native secretary (Mr. M'Lean), the assistant native secretary (Mr. Smith), and the land claims commissioner (Mr. Dillon Bell). The interview commenced with the usual salutations from the chiefs and welcome from the Governor.

The native secretary said that the Governor was now ready to hear anything the chiefs might have to say in furtherance of the statement made to him by Ahipene, that the Waikato chiefs at several large meetings had expressed their desire for peace, and their readiness (subject to the Governor's approval) to send down the Chief Mokina to Taranaki, and bring back the Waikatos from the seat of war.

Ahipene then handed in a document which he said expressed what the chiefs proposed. The following is a translation:—

"February 4, 1864.

"FRIEND THE GOVERNOR,—Saluting you, this is our word to you or talk about peace.

"1st. The piece of land at Waitara, let it be left aside or set apart, to be afterwards arranged or settled by a court or wakawakanga.

"2nd. Do not hold to or bear in remembrance the causes of evil, whether as regards men, the land, or murder, or property; let these be all unloosened, all forgiven, now at the present time."

The Governor desired the native secretary to tell the chiefs that the paper now read contained nothing beyond a wish that all questions between Her Majesty's Government and the ~~insurgents~~ insurgents should be remitted exactly to the position in which they stood before the commencement of hostilities, which was quite inadmissible as the basis of peace.

Ahipene replied that the natives had stated their own idea; would the Governor now say what his Excellency required?

The Governor replied, that in this paper he saw none of the things which he expected would have been properly considered by the chiefs before asking for peace. For instance, there was not a word about the future recognition of British law in cases where individuals of the two races were concerned, and about compensation for the devastation that had been committed at Taranaki, nor about the murders of the boys at Omata, in March, 1860.

Ahipene, on behalf of the chiefs, said that they had expected there would

be questions to settle between the Governor and the insurgents; that by pretending, however, then to say how these questions were to be settled, he should only expose himself to ridicule for presumption; but that the proper course was to make peace first and settle the differences afterwards.

The Governor said it was out of the question to do so. Waikato had gone down to Taranaki without a cause; where was the ground on which they had taken up arms against the Queen? Were they to expect, after joining in an insurrection, spilling so much blood, and utterly desolating an English settlement, to have an unconditional peace, which would leave them at liberty to renew hostilities when they pleased?

Ihaka and Ahipene said they had all agreed to the proposals in the paper that had been read, and had nothing else to offer. The native secretary was again desired to say distinctly that these proposals were inadmissible.

The Governor then said, that the chiefs must not misunderstand him. There were certain things which had to be considered by the Waikatos before they could justly expect peace from him; there were certain things to be considered by the Ngatiawas and William King, with which Waikato had no business; there were also things to be considered by the Ngatiruanui tribes, and especially the murders committed by them. Other settlers had been killed during the war, but their death was not regarded by the Governor in the same light as the unprovoked murders by Ngatiruanui and Taranaki; and the chiefs present were to understand that Waikato was not required to be answerable for those murders, and that Taranaki and Ngatiruanui would be dealt with respecting them.

This statement of the Governor's intentions respecting the murders seemed to relieve the minds of the chiefs; but Ahipene observed for them, that Waikato would expect to be consulted about William King and the Ngatiawa, meaning that a settlement with these would have to be included in a settlement with Waikato.

The Governor desired the chiefs to inform him whether they were authorized to bind their own tribes or the Ngatiawa? The chiefs replied that they had no authority, but that what they agreed to they would strive to make good; and if the insurgents in arms refused to carry out the terms agreed on, they would be left to their fate.

The Governor pointed out that it was evident from their own admission that they were not authorized to treat for peace, and yet they expected him to discontinue military operations at once. When he issued orders in the Queen's name they were instantly obeyed, but there was no sort of security that the agreement of the chiefs present would be fulfilled.

The chiefs sat with their heads down and did not reply.

After a pause, Tamati Ngapora rose and said that he had been thinking there were two kinds of water, salt and fresh; each had its source, and both sources were perennial; these might be permitted to flow on, for the sources of both were inexhaustible, but it was otherwise with the flow of human blood. This war was like a feast to which people were invited, or a piece of work which men had been called to assist in; those who came to help in the work, or to partake of the feast, played but a secondary part. All the responsibility rested with the projectors; the guests had only to eat what was set before them, the workers had only to perform the work assigned to them, according to their various inclinations or abilities. The viands, the duration of the feast, the point to which the work should be carried, rested with those who planned the affair. William King and the

Governor were the principals in this business; it was for them to say when it had gone far enough; if they thought it had done so now, they should stop it; it was for the Governor to say "Hold;" and if William King did not acquiesce, let the responsibility for further bloodshed rest with him. It was the feeling of the chiefs present that matters had gone too far already; the Governor's intentions might have been straight, but had not the most unhappy results followed this business of the Governor and William King? Let them, therefore, put a stop to it. For his own part, he looked to this only, that blood was being shed; this ought to cease at once. While conditions of peace were being discussed, blood was still flowing.

The Governor replied that he was quite as anxious as Tamati Ngapora that the shedding of blood should be stopped, but what would be the use of stopping it now if it was to begin flowing again six months hence. William King had raised an insurrection against the Queen, and Waikato and other tribes had wrongfully taken up arms to help him in it; there must be some guarantee that peace would be permanent, and that the insurrection would not break out again when the natives had been allowed to take rest.

Tamati Ngapora took the Governor's stick and placed it on the table, striking one end, he asked where the vibration would stop? Not at the first six inches, not till it had reached the other end (meaning that it was inevitable other tribes should have become involved in William King's insurrection). The Governor rejoined that the vibration had gone farther than Tamati Ngapora said, for it had extended across the great ocean to England (meaning that when these tribes were found to have joined William King, more troops were sent).

The chiefs remained silent.

After a time the Governor said that he supposed he was to understand by this silence that they had nothing more to say. For his part, he was going immediately up to Ngapuhi, where he would consult the northern chiefs, his friends, who had remained firm in their loyalty to the Queen, and on his return he would gladly again meet the Waikato chiefs, after they should have considered the necessity of submitting reasonable terms of peace to him.

Emera Patuone said the insurrection was like an abscess, unless the core of it were out, it would not be healed. He observed, however, with respect to the Ngatiruanui murders, that Paratene ti Kopara was the actual murderer, and that as he had been killed since, his death was (according to Maori usage) a sufficient atonement.

The native secretary explained that there were others accused of the murders besides Paratene; that these would have to be tried, but that the Governor could not take their lives unless they were found guilty by the law. It was not certainly known who were guilty, but certain men had been accused by name, and it would be for the law to discover whether they were innocent or guilty. The native secretary further explained the Governor's views with respect to trial of natives by mixed juries.

Taraia (referring to the Governor's intention to consult his friends) then asked who were the Governor's friends. Potatau had been one, and he (Waikato) was represented by Tamati Ngapora; Tamati Waka was one, and he (Ngapuhi) was represented by his brother Patuone; Ngatitua was represented by Hohepa Tamaihengia, the Thames people by himself. There was, therefore, no reason why the question of peace should not be settled at once. If this war had been one between two native tribes, and a meeting

had been held of chiefs as competent as those present to represent the contending parties, peace would have been concluded, and no one would have presumed to continue hostilities after it became known that such a meeting had taken place.

Hohepa Tamaihengia agreed with Tamati Ngapora and the other chiefs that the further shedding of blood should immediately cease, and that the settlement of differences should come afterwards.

Ahipene urged that if the Governor agreed to the proposal that peace should now be made, this fact would furnish a basis for the chiefs to work upon; and that the word would go forth and be carried far and wide, and would prevent those who were preparing to join in the insurrection from doing so; but unless they had a ground of this kind to go upon, they should work at a disadvantage.

The Governor repeated that he was ready to say that word whenever there was security for the permanence of peace; but if the insurgents in arms against the Queen's authority really intended to submit nothing more than the paper which had been read, there was no security whatever that the insurrection would not break out again at any moment, and that he could not stay his hand now. It was with the greatest pain he made the declaration that no result had been arrived at by the present interview, and that military operations would continue to be carried on at Taranaki until the insurgents, either by themselves or their friends, were prepared to make reasonable proposals.

Ihaka of Pukaki then rose, and said it appeared to him that all the labour and consideration which had been given to the subject would end in nothing, if the interview terminated at the present stage. For himself, he looked with compassion on the Governor's blood and Tamati Ngapori's blood, which was fast flowing, and to that alone would he continue to look; but if the present proposals for peace were rejected, he should not again come to talk about it. Points of difference could not be arranged while blood was flowing.

The Governor replied that nothing was easier than to stop the flow of blood, as far as Waikato was concerned. Waikato had struck him without a cause: let Waikato come back forthwith from the scene of war, and then no one would have to lament the continued shedding of either the Governor's or Waikato's blood. But if peace were made on the terms now offered, what was there to prevent Waikato from causing the blood which would only be stanchd from recommencing its flow? It was impossible to listen to such terms. The chiefs must work again at their own thoughts and those which he had indicated to them. While he was away at the north, they must consult their various tribes, and be prepared, on his return, to meet him with reasonable proposals, to which they would be ready to sign their names, as well as to whatever was finally arranged, in order that their people might know for certain what their chiefs proposed. The moment that his own signature was put to such an arrangement, the word of peace would go forth, and military operations would be ordered to cease; but not till then.

The interview then terminated, and the Governor immediately embarked on board her Majesty's ship *Iris*, and sailed for the Bay of Islands.

On the 20th May, a despatch arrived from Governor Brown, reporting a visit to the Bay of Islands and the settlement of Mongoneis, both on the north of the island.

I was accompanied by the chief Teraiah, from the Thames (who was anxious to prove that the report of his intended attack upon Auckland was without foundation); Ihaka, a Waikato chief; Patuone, a Ngapuhi; and Hohepa, a Ngatitou chief.

I had several motives for desiring the attendance of these chiefs; and am satisfied that their presence at the various interviews between myself and the northern tribes had a very salutary effect on themselves as well as on the people whom I visited. I enclose a report of the speeches made at these meetings; but I may state generally that I found the Ngapuhi tribe (who have been since the last war most loyal) less well affected than when I last visited them.

The chief Honghi (son of the late chief of the same name) was present at the meeting held on the 12th, and told the native secretary, in a private conversation, that he had no ill-will to the Government; but that he was assured it was my intention to destroy the native race in detail, and take their lands; and that if such were the case, he would unite his people with those of William Kingi, and strike a blow before it was too late. He declined to give his authority for this report, but said it came from Europeans whose veracity he had not till then doubted.

The Governor was sorry to learn from various sources that the alarm and disaffection, which have spread so far and wide, have originated almost invariably in statements made by Europeans. In many places the natives believe that the Government intends to seize all the native lands indiscriminately, and make the owners hewers of wood and drawers of water. He had every reason to believe, however, that his visit to the Ngapuhi chiefs had the effect of reassuring them and disabusing their minds of many false reports. The chief tenor of their speeches was to ask that the restrictions on the sale of spirits and gunpowder might be removed, and the expression of a hope that peace would soon be established. From the Bay of Islands the Governor went to Mongonui, where he was received by a large assembly of the Rarawa tribe and others, who came from a considerable distance. The chief Honghi met him there a second time, and renewed his assurances of good-will. Mr. Pulkey, the missionary who resided among the Rarawa, arrived in New Zealand forty-one years ago, and had lived constantly with the natives. He had great influence among them, and always endeavoured to support the views of the Government. Mr. White, the resident magistrate, was a zealous, active officer; and Mr. Butler, now a member of the House of Representatives (with whom the natives chiefly trade), was also a most loyal subject of her Majesty. With such excellent advisers, the natives of this tribe were, as might be expected, thoroughly loyal, and declared their sentiments in the most unequivocal terms. The chief Teraiah also, in the presence of this meeting, expressed his determination to maintain peace with us, and protect the Europeans by every means in his power.

The whole of the speeches made on this occasion were most satisfactory, and will, I trust, have a good effect upon the natives generally.

From further despatches from the Governor, it appears that other chiefs have offered terms of peace, but that the Governor did not think they were *bonâ fide*. On the 14th June, 1861, the Duke of Newcastle received from Governor Brown a map showing the proportion of land over which native title has been extinguished in the northern island and the reserve made out of that part for the use of the native population. The Governor also

enclosed the following statistical notes relating to the Maoris and their territory by Charles Heaply, chief surveyor, Auckland.

It has been stated in England, and asserted even in New Zealand, that the rebellion at Taranaki had its origin in a combination of the tribes to resist alarming encroachments on the part of the settlers, and to repel a pressure which, by forcing tribe upon tribe in its insidious advance, had begun to threaten the very existence of the race.

A consideration of the relative numbers of the natives to the area of the territory which they possess, and of that extent of land to the amount held by the whites, will show that a pressure never did or could have existed, and it will be seen that at Taranaki, in particular, the lands ceded to the Europeans, bear but an insignificant proportion to that held by the natives.

An examination into the circumstances of the localities of the various tribes will show that those that have sold most land to the whites are not amongst the disaffected, and that the rebellion has been fed by tribes from those parts of the coast where there had been scarcely any sales of land to the Europeans, or from the great interior country, where the few old land claims and missionary grants would be represented only by a minute fraction in comparison with the great area of native territory.

The area of the northern Island of New Zealand, the seat of $\frac{3}{4}$ of the Maori population, is about 25,688,480 acres, and of this about 7,064,660 acres are in the hands of the British, and 22,623,820 acres remain to the natives.

The relative numbers of each race were by the last collected census, of Maoris, 53,056, and of Europeans 39,484. The Maoris have then remaining to them an extent of land equal in area to three times that which they have alienated.

The annexed map will show that from the few districts where a moiety or the greater part of the land has been alienated by the natives, no individuals or tribes have joined the insurgents.

The Rarawa tribe at the North Cape, numbering 107 souls, has retained but 264,000 acres; and the Ngatiwhatua, of the vicinity of Auckland, with 505 souls, has kept but 107,520 acres; yet neither of these has shown disaffection, but, on the contrary, they are of all the Maori tribes the most friendly to the white people and loyal to the Government.

The Ngatekahungunu, of the east coast, out of a territory of 5,532,240 acres, have retained but 3,025,440 acres, with a population of 6,339 souls, yet these, although sympathising, as is but natural, with Wiremu Kingi, have not contributed to the war.

The Rarawa and Ngatewhatua tribes, above mentioned, would be the first to feel a pressure, if any were likely to exist, but they are too busy in bringing their produce to the ready market afforded by the European settlements, to care about interfering in the rebellion.

Between the Waitara and Mokau rivers, in the Taranaki province, the Ngatiawa, Wirimu Kingi's tribe, hold about 460,800 acres of land, with a population of 1,466; within these limits there is not an acre owned or claimed by a white man. No pressure can have existed there.

But William Kingi came from Waikanae, 190 miles down Cork Strait, where his people had been located since 1834, the date of the conquest of his country by the Waikatos. At Waikanae there was abundance of room for William Kingi's hapu or sub-tribe, and no idea of returning could have

presented itself until the prospect of a neighbouring English settlement gave a hope of protection against the Waikato invaders. So anxious was Kingi for that protection, that he accompanied Col. Wakefield (with whom was the writer) in visiting Queen Charlotte's Sound, and other localities of the Ngatiawa, in 1839, in order to persuade the various sections of the tribe to sell their claims to the district; and in the deed of sale of the land which resulted, Kingi's name (E. Whiti) appears as the first of the signatures.

The rights of the Waikato conquerors to the whole district, inclusive of Waitara, were purchased by Mr. George Clarke, protector of natives for the Queen, in 1842.

In 1848 Wiremu Kingi returned to Waitara from Waikanae. He was enjoined by Governor Sir George Grey, to restrict himself to reside on the northern bank of the Waitara; it was necessary subsequently for him to ask permission of Teira's father before erecting a pa on the southern side. That no pressure existed to cause Kingi to leave his settlement at Waikanae and return to the neighbourhood of New Plymouth is proved by the circumstance of his people having since leased considerable tracts of country near Waikanae to the settlers. Northward of the Waitara I have already shown that the Ngatiawa hold a territory of 460,800 acres.

The Toranaki and Ngateruanui tribes, about 2,049 in population, who commenced hostilities by the murder on the south of New Plymouth of the unarmed settlers and boys, claim the country from the Houranga stream to within a few miles of Wanganui [Petre]. This territory extends over 97 miles of coast, and comprises 1,236,480 acres, of which about 152,320 acres have been sold to the Crown, leaving to the enjoyment of about 2000 natives 1,084,160 acres.

The Ngate Maniapoto tribe, of Kawhia, very soon joined in the rebellion, and hastened down the coast, 80 miles, to the scene of plunder and excitement.

Few tribes in New Zealand had less cause to fear the encroachment of the Pakeha than those at Kawhia. Out of a territory of 954,000 acres not more than 53,605 acres had been alienated, leaving 900,395 acres, with a good harbour, and fifty miles of coast, to a Maori population of 2,585 persons. The European population of Kawhia amounted only to about 47 persons, and was not fast increasing, and the Government blocks of land at Awakino had not yet settlers located on them.

The Thames and Waikato tribes travelled a distance of from 100 to 150 miles to join in the fight. Their country is the most fertile and attractive in the island; in it there is the greatest extent of level and naturally available land, and the streams of the Thames, the Piako, and the Waikato afford facilities of water communication and the conveyance of produce. In Thames the Europeans hold 64,731 acres, and in the Waikato about 4,343 acres; this is out of about 2,906,000 acres, which those districts comprise, and would be represented roughly by the fraction of $\frac{1}{30}$.

In the Taupo and Upper Wanganui districts, which were the last to contribute men to the war, there is a territory of 2,880,000 acres, the white people occupying two acres.

One other inquiry remains—that respecting the actual population and area of the province of Taranaki, the territorial boundaries of which are not coincident with the tribe or boundaries before alluded to.

The province of Taranaki contains a white population of 2726 souls, with 60,000 acres; and a native population of 8015 persons with 2,339,360 acres; each Maori holding a mean of $775\frac{1}{2}$ acres.

The frontage to the coast held by the whites is less than 12 miles long, that owned by the Maoris is 116 miles in length.

The anchorage off the coast at the Sugar Loaf Islands is free to all; the natives hold the only navigable rivers, those of Mokau, Waitara, and Patea.

There is a peculiarity about the history of the Taranaki country, that has not yet been brought to notice. From the absence of a good harbour it had become, on the advent of the white people to New Zealand, a deserted district. Thirty years since shore-whaling parties were settling in the southern parts of Cook Straits, and the Taranaki tribes, headed by Ware Pouri and Epuni, by Whiti (W. Kingi) and Pomare joined the Kawhia people in an attack on the natives of Cook Straits, in order to obtain access to the numerous harbours, and a share of their lucrative trade. During the absence of a portion of the tribe at Waikanae and Port Nicholson the remainder were attacked by the Waikato and conquered at the Waitara, but the conquerors saw no reason to remain in the place, and left it to return to the northern coast and rivers, where Sydney vessels were plying for the purchase of flax. Thus, until the white people came, Taranaki was deserted alike by conquerors and conquered, and to the Ngatiawa instead of a pressure, the presence of the settlers has been a protection; the slaves of their tribes held by the Waikatos have been manumitted, and all three have been paid for their land.

Estimations made from time to time of the number of the Maoris, as well as the Government census, shows that the race, from causes inherent to it, is fast diminishing. The Maoris are themselves aware of this, and have no idea that the land they now occupy will be insufficient for the wants of their successors. From these circumstances it is evident that no dread of being shut out from their land, or of being driven tribe upon tribe could have impelled the natives to a rebellion.

William Kingi who returned to Taranaki in 1848 to occupy the northern bank only of the Waitara did not find that bank required by the white people in 1860. The Thames, Kawhia, Waikato and Taupo natives never had cause to fear a pressure.

The Taranaki and Ngatiruanui tribes seem to have been actuated by the mere love of marauding and plunder. They never appear to have acted in concert with Kingi or to have had any precise idea of the nature of the quarrel.

The origin of the disaffection of those who have joined Kingi will probably be found to have been a kind of national feeling of jealousy of the European wealth and increasing power, of the wealth which they could not participate in to the extent of those tribes that trafficked nearer to Auckland, and of a power which the chiefs feared would by elevating the social position of the individual undermine their influence amongst the people.

On the 22nd July, the Duke of Newcastle received from Governor Browne the following petition to her Majesty, with a suggestion, however, that the tone of the letter was not that of a native writing unaided by European inspiration.

Pa Whakairo (near Napier), April 3, 1861.

To the QUEEN of ENGLAND, greeting,—

This is our message to you regards the evils of our country which are being brought upon it by your people, the Europeans, who are fighting against us, the Maoris. The good measures with which your name was associated in our country, have been forsaken; those measures which led the Maoris of this land to believe that you would be truly a mother to us. At the time when the first Governors conducted matters well, then indeed those measures and your name also were pleasant to the hearts of your Maori people. The policy was good, and the two races, the Maori and the Pakeha were living in peace. Matters were discussed, and when found to be good were accepted; when evil, they were set aside by your two races. That was how things were done in those days, and the first Governors returned home in good favour with the people. But with the sending out of this Governor came new systems, and your name also became strange in the midst of this people. Now for the first time have evil measures been forced upon us; and it is a new thing for you to hear that there is war in this island.

Mother, do not listen to the false reports which perhaps are sent to you, saying that the Maoris are fighting against your authority. They are false. Know, then, that the quarrel relates to land only. For many years we have been quietly talking over matters, and we found nothing. Now, for the first time, have we discovered [a wrong] this is indeed a wrong. For this reason we think it advisable that you should appoint a judge (commissioner) for this quarrel, that it may be put an end to.

This only is our message to you, greeting,—

(Signed) Tareha, Te Moananui, Renata Kawepo, Karaitiana Takamoana, Noa Huke, Paora Torotoro, Te Matenga Te Hokimate, Te Harawira Taterei, Morena, Paraone Hakihaki, Rota Porehua, Te Harawira Takuao, Niremu Te Rewarewa, Te Wirihana Ponomai, Henare Te Apatari, Noa Kuhupuku, Waka Hiao, Te Hira Te Ota, Tohutohu, Te Teira Tepaea, Paora Rerepu, Te Haka, Porokoru Mapu.

From us all, 170 men, native chiefs of this place, of Napier.

On the 15th August, 1861, the Duke of Newcastle received from Governor Browne a memorandum, which he addressed to his responsible ministers on the policy to be pursued in native affairs, whenever the establishment of peace might enable them to put it into practice. The memorandum concluded with the following recapitulation of the Governor's opinion:—

1. Elicit the views of the natives at the next conference, and be guided by their wishes as far as possible.
2. If they will consent to the appointment of chiefs (acceptable to themselves) to be organs of communication with the Government, give these chiefs proper salaries.
3. In districts where chiefs are so appointed, attach an English officer to each, in order to act as his adviser, and assist him in the administration of justice.
4. Where this plan cannot be introduced, appoint an European magistrate to act as adviser to the runangas, and make regular circuits through each district, accompanied by one or two assessors; policemen will also be required in each district.

5. Constitute runangas legally, and allow them to make rules and elect assessors, subject in both cases to approval by the Governor. The rules, when approved, to be carried out by the assessors under advice of the magistrate.

6. Divide the native territory into geographical districts, and appoint an European officer to reside in each district, as above stated.

7. Establish a central school for the instruction of native assessors in the rudiments of the administration of justice, and for instructing young Englishmen desirous to fit themselves for employment in the native service.

8. Remodel the native service, and increase the number of officers.

9. Open registers for land belonging to native communities, entering therein the names of trustees, where such communities shall be willing to appoint them; engaging that this land so registered shall not be bought by the Crown without the consent of the said trustees.

10. Pass an act giving power to issue Crown grants in commutation of the native tenure to land.

11. Establish a tribunal, to which resort may be had for the determination of any questions in difference relating to land between the Crown and any natives, or between the natives themselves.

12. Give secular instruction (including the rudiments of agriculture) in the native kaingas.

13. Alter the system of purchasing land (see printed despatch, No. 80, of 1859), and for the present purchase only in the districts which remain undisturbed.

14. Make bush roads through the heart of the native districts, more particularly through the Waikato to Taranaki, and thence to Whanganui.

The despatches of the Governor dated 6th July, indicated that the Maoris were more than ever disposed to oppose force to force, and that it was better to employ a large force to crush it at once. A recent committee of the Houses of Conference had also come to the same conclusion.

On the 25th May, 1861, the Duke of Newcastle informed Governor T. Gore Browne, C.B., that Sir George Grey would replace him as Governor of New Zealand. And on the 20th November, 1861, Governor Browne sent a copy of certain valedictory addresses which he received from the native chiefs, as follows:—

Whaingaroa, August 12, 1861.

MR. SMITH,—

I have received your letter of the 16th July. My love is great because of the regard of the Governor. I wrote because I shall not be able to see him.

Father the Governor,—Salutations. Great is my love for you, residing at Auckland, which you are probably about to leave, for I hear that you are returning to England. I told you some time ago that my tribe and I were striving for light and quiet, and we have obtained light through my diligence in doing your work, investigating and making clear good regulations. We are now living quietly. If we die now, we die of sickness; we do not die from the effects of our bad deeds, but we die in doing our duty.

Father the Governor, if you go, write and let me know the time of your departure. We hear that you are about to be separated from your Maori people. Father, I do not see that you have done any wrong, that men

should blame you. Father, do not forget to inform me of the time of your departure, that we may witness your going.

From your loving friend,

HEMI MATINI, Native Assessor.

Hokianga, August 17, 1861.

FRIEND THE GOVERNOR,—

Salutations to you. This is a word of farewell from us, the chiefs of this part, as representing all the men of Hokianga, for we have heard that you are going away, that you are leaving this place. We had become friends and now you arise and depart. But what can be done? It is the command of our Queen and yours; the Queen of the Ngapuhi and of the Rarawa.

This is a song of love :—

On this day the wind is still,
There is a turning away to the corners of the house;
Kindle, O Governor, the light.
There is a breath of love.

Go, O Governor, our love goes with you. Although you may reside at a distance, Governor Browne will always be remembered.

Te Hira Ngaropo, Te Tai Papahia, Rawiri Tahua, Wiremu Tana, Hori Karaka, Nae, Te Moanaroa, Atama Tohu, Rangatira Moetara, Marupo Te Tahana, Te Ahi Mawiti, Hakaraia.

Mangere, August 2, 1861.

FATHER THE GOVERNOR,—

Salutations to you. Your word has reached me, informing me of your being about to leave this island, and of the coming of Governor Grey. I grieve for you, therefore, because of the love between us, and I thank God, who has directed us aright. Although you may be absent, I will not forget your word about te Ja, because up to the time of your departure the ridge pole of the house has not been broken. Although there may be a great deal of bad news from Waikato, yet do you continue to forbear as I will. Friend, your word is correct where you say that I will be glad. Wait until he is on the other side of Manukau; then I shall be glad, and shall be thankful if there is love left behind. Let us wait for the good day. Friend the Governor, it is correct that my heart is relieved because of the jeers (threats) against Waikato not being fulfilled. I say, therefore, go upon your and my loving work. Me you will leave here. Enough.

From your loving friend,

TAMATI NGAPORA.

Waionio, August 23, 1861.

THIS is my word of love to you. Sir Governor Browne, I greet you in love. This is my farewell to you, go to your own land, O Governor, the father of the tribes of this island of New Zealand. Sir, great is my love for you. It was you who lifted me up; hence my love for you. Our love will continue although you are separated from me. Enough. This is my love for you.

From your loving son,

MAIHI P. KAWITI.

[159]

Taranaki, August 27, 1861.

Go, our loving father, Governor Browne; great is our sorrow because of your going away, and leaving us here fatherless; for you are our father; it was you who saved us from this evil, and who knows whether another Governor may be as kind to us. Go, kind father, the post to which the canoe is tied. Go, great cloud which enveloped us and saved us. We thus figuratively express ourselves because of your separation from us.

We are separated, O Rangi; we are parted. We are far apart now, O Rangi, and can but vainly lament our separation.

Enough. From all the men of Te Pontoko.

We write our names that you may see them.

Ropata Ngarongomate, Porikapa, Taituha, Henare, Hohepa, Haimona, Himiona, Wi Kamokamo, Honetana, Nikorima, Matiu, Eruini, Pehimana, Mohi Rahui, Mohi Ngatoro, Hamuera, Ngahoro, Te Manihera, Te Mutu, Tamati Kawear, Kerapa, Kamariera, Etaraka, Hare, Epiha, Hopa Poaka, Te Meiha, Hopa Taperi, Te Ketu, Te Wirihana, Wi Tamihana.

Moturoa, August 27, 1861.

FRIEND GOVERNOR BROWNE,—

Salutations to you. Friend, you are about to be separated from us. Great is our love for you; you were very kind to us during the days of evil, and hence my love for you. These words of “tangi” (sorrow) for you are from the “Runanga” of Moturoa, and from the Runango of Potapete.

FROM POHARAMA TE WHITIORONGOMAI. MOKENA HURIWHENUA.

This is a farewell to the Governor.

Auckland, August 15, 1861.

FATHER, THE GOVERNOR,—

Salutations to you; great is our love for you; because, O Governor, the Ngaiterangi never came to see the former Governors, it was only in your day that they came to see Governor Browne. The chiefs came because you very properly invited the chiefs of New Zealand to assemble together, in order to effect a union between the two races inhabiting New Zealand, that is, the Pakeha and Maori. Hence our love, and we now write this farewell letter to the Governor:—Go, O father; return to your place.

This is a song of love:
 How is my heart oppress'd with love;
 Come, that I may pour forth for thee the tears that fill mine eyes.
 Thou art far distant, but thy spirit is here
 Waking me up from this my sleep.
 I start, and fancy that thou'rt still in life;
 I will climb the intervening ranges,
 That I may clearly see the smoke
 Ascending from Otutara.
 You, O Rangi! whom I love, are at the north;
 You took away your sacred person,
 And left me here to seek in vain.

This concludes the expression of our love. From your loving friends,
 HAMIORA MATENGA TU, RANIERA TE HIAHIA, WIREMU HAETA PEKA.

*Auckland, August 22, 1861.***O FATHER, THE GOVERNOR,—**

Go, our loving parent, return to your place, to Port Jackson, and listen to your people, the people of Kaipara, to this tribe to the men of Ngatiwhatua, who have always been faithful to you and whom you now leave in peace. No wrong has been done by us during your stay here; and now that you are going away you are going with a good character. You have done us no harm, neither have we done any harm to you, that is to Maoris living in New Zealand. The Ngatiwhatua tribe is a good living under the protecting shade of the Queen. There is a proverb among us. O Father, the Governor listen to our saying, to the proverb of the Ngatiwhatua, ("Opokopoko whiti ra") "Opokopoko, shining sun." This is my proverb, hence our good conduct. With us murder was a thing unknown, hence our proverb. Our dispute at Te Wairoa was settled according to law.

Father, the Governor, we shall grieve for you when you are separated from us. Let me bid you farewell, for your love for us has been great. I will now recite my "tangi."

Descend O sun with hasty stride,
 Leave me to sigh and weep,
 As heaven was separated from earth
 So were we divided.
 Hence thy untoward departure.
 I thought though wouldst have stood in thy beauty and bid farewell,
 That tears might have been poured forth from mine eyes.
 How stupid it is to weep for nought,
 But my beloved is severed from me;
 Step forth, O Uru, pass through the porch;
 Return not, nor cause me needless pain.

This is my tangi for you.

From your loving friend,
 PARAONE NGAWEKE TUHOROPUNGA.

*Te Muri o Tarariki, August 25, 1861.***FRIEND THE GOVERNOR,—**

Salutations to you. This is our word. Harken! On the 24th day of August, the Ngatirango tribe assembled at Te Muri o Tarariki, for the purpose of laying down rules for the tribe, in order that they may reside within the boundary line laid down by you for the men of Kaipara and for the men of Manurangi. These are the Maori runangas that are under your Government, and under the protecting shade of the Queen; for we have made your words known that the two races should live together under the law of God, and under the law of the Queen. Enough. When they heard your words, they approved of them, as these two tribes have a great regard for you; and now you are soon to disappear from your children, to whom you have been so kind during your governorship. Enough. It will be for you to consider this letter. Mention the matter to Governor Grey, when he arrives in New Zealand: let this be the love that you leave to your children. This is their tangi for you.

"Go, O Father, go to your place and leave us here alone; the parent who guarded all the tribes is departing." These words of "tangi" for you are sufficient. That Maori runanga is composed of the chiefs of the Ngatirango. You appoint that runanga and lay down the line under the law of the Queen as a fence for them after you have gone, as we shall not know the new governors that will succeed you. Enough. I will now write the

names of the most intelligent men, and of the chiefs of this tribe, the Ngatirango Muripaenga. You establish the runanga at Mahurangi. These are the names of the men which we now make known to you and to Governor Grey to be confirmed by him. Here it ends.—Te Hemara Tauhai, assessor, Hori Kingi Hokingarua, Te Waka Tuara, Henari Winiata Te Urungatapu, Paratene Te Peta, Wiremu Matatahi, Kaupapa Wawa, Hone Weteri Tohetai, Makoari Ponui, Piri Paraone Pu, Nga Kauri Matatoko-toroa, Tuniwhatu Wuru, Pene Tiaki, Te Katene Hawea, Tokamai Parekawakawa.

FRIEND, THE GOVERNOR,—This is my love to you; my love for you will never cease—never!

See the mist rising over Pakahina,
By that way my love departed.
O turn, that I may pour the water from mine eyes;
The first advances were not mine
But thine; thou first in truth,
To me, the little one, did'st turn aside,
Thus was my heart made foolish,
And my affections gained.

This is a song to the Governor by Te Otene, and the Ngatiwhatua, of Kiapara.

EAST INDIA (FINANCE).

Copy of a Memorandum on Indian Finance with reference to the alleged Mistake in the Budget of India. (412.) 12th July, 1862.

IN consequence of the publication of a despatch from the Secretary of State respecting Indian finance, indicating there had been a mistake, involving a deficiency of upwards of 1,000,000*l.*, in the Indian budget, Mr. S. Laing, late finance minister of India, explained the circumstance as arising from the mode of dealing with two items in the home charges, viz., the cancelled "Loss by Railway Exchange," and the "Refund of China Advances." As to the first question, that of railway exchange, Mr. Laing maintained that this is purely a question as to the mode in which accounts are kept, and not a real charge on revenue requiring money to meet it. The distinction is obvious between matters of charge and matters of account. If a merchant makes a loss on a real exchange transaction, he has to pay it; but if he chooses to keep his books in dollars at 5*s.*, or rupees at 1*s.* 10*d.*, when they are really worth something different, this does not in the slightest degree affect the question whether the result of his year's working is a profit or loss. Now, what does this so-called "loss on railway exchange" really mean? India, finding railways of vital necessity, undertakes to make them, and it being manifestly impossible to do so from surplus revenue, resolves to open a capital account, and charge revenue only with the interest, or with any deficiency in the net earnings required to make up the interest. The amount of capital which must be raised, is evidently neither more nor less than the amount which is required to be spent in completing the railways. If the State had made the railways itself, loans for the exact amount of their cost would have been raised by the State; but it was preferred (whether wisely or not is no longer the question) to raise the capital through the agency of companies; the essence of whose bargain with the State is, that the Indian Government gives an absolute guarantee

of five per cent. on the capital required to make the railways. If the capital originally provided should, from any reason, prove to be insufficient, the Government guarantees fresh capital, either in shares or debentures; or, in an extreme case, borrows the money itself, as was done last year, and takes the additional shares or debentures which the public will not absorb. In this process there is nothing whatever that affects revenue, all legitimate charges on which are met, if any deficiency of traffic to pay interest on completed lines is provided for, by taxation; and which, in the case of India, are more than met, inasmuch as we charge to revenue account, the interest not only on completed, but also on unfinished lines, which any private company would charge to capital.

Now, how is this state of things altered by the accidental circumstance, that for convenience of accounts with the railway companies, the exchange of the day, or 1s. 10d. per rupee, was taken as the standard in which accounts should be kept? If by paying 1s. 10d. the shareholder got a guarantee on 2s., this would be exactly equivalent to raising a loan in five per cent. stock at 90 $\frac{1}{2}$., and there would be a real loss of 10 per cent.; though, even in this case, what financier ever proposed to treat as a charge on the revenue of the year, the discount at which a loan was raised, and to impose taxes to meet it? He simply raises so much more nominal capital, if the state of the market does not permit him to place his stock at par. But my case is much stronger, for there is no real loss; the shareholder's guarantee is on the 1s. 10d. which he actually pays, and no more; and the sole practical effect is, that the capital originally provided turns out to be rather too small, and more new capital has to be provided.

I know of no way, Mr. Laing said, in which I can better show the nominal character of this charge than by applying two tests. The first is—suppose the rate of exchange in account had been fixed at 2s. 2d. instead of at 1s. 10d. for the rupee, would the excess of 458,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ l. which would have resulted, have been fairly available as a receipt in current revenue; and if not, how can its exact counterpart be a charge? The other test is—how can that be a charge on the revenue of the year which has certainly not been paid in the course of the year, and which, as certainly, is owing to no one at its conclusion? I appeal to this latter test with the more confidence, because, in no estimate or account from England has this sum ever been entered as a charge to be paid there, or included in any demand for remittances; and it is quite certain that no one claims it in India.

If, by any forced construction, it can be held that this sum (458,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ l.) has been paid in India, because during 1861-62 some 60,000,000 of rupees, worth 2s. each, have been spent on the formation of railways, the reply is obvious. It has been disbursed from the cash balances, which still show a surplus of incomings over outgoings; and it would have been a blunder of the first magnitude to charge a second time against current revenue what had been already paid as capital out of surplus.

The next question relates to the credit taken for 529,446 $\frac{1}{2}$ l., shown by the home estimates to be receivable in 1862-63 from the Imperial Government in repayment of advances in India on account of the China expedition. The Secretary of State says, "It is contrary to the first principles of account to treat sums so repaid as part of the income of the year." I must confess my surprise at such a statement, from one who has filled the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer in England.

Was Mr. Gladstone ignorant of "the first principles of account," when

he included in the miscellaneous receipts of 1860, upwards of 1,000,000*l.* of money, repaid by Spain for advances made more than 20 years before? or Sir G. C. Lewis, when for two years after the Crimean war, he allowed these receipts to be swelled by the sale of old stores that had been paid for partly by loans during the war? Or again, was Mr. Wilson, after five years' experience as Secretary to the Treasury, ignorant of the A. B. C. of accounts, when he made a precisely similar deduction, in 1860?

A budget may be framed on two principles, either that of including all current payments and receipts of the year, or of taking the ordinary payments and receipts only, and bringing all extraordinary items into a supplementary budget. The latter principle is that adopted in France, but the former has been the universal practice in England; and it is the preferable one, as it leaves less scope for self-delusion in ignoring real expenses, because they are not in the ordinary budget.

I cannot understand therefore on what principle extraordinary expenses are to be included as a charge, and extraordinary receipts excluded as a revenue. Of course, it would be wrong to repeal taxes on the faith of extraordinary receipts not likely to recur, and not balanced by extraordinary charges; as if Mr. Gladstone had reduced the income tax by 1*d.* in the pound on the faith of the Spanish million; but the true policy is to include both, and to look at both sides, in order to see whether the special charges which will not recur, are or are not covered by the special receipts. This is precisely what I did. I found on the side of expenditure two charges that are clearly special, of which the full amount will not, in all probability, be spent in 1862-63, and which, at any rate, will not recur.

The first of these is 230,000*l.* for a telegraph through Persia. Now, the line passes through one of the least known and most inhospitable districts of the world, which has not yet been surveyed: and the last phase of the negotiations with Persia was that she demanded conditions for allowing the passage of the line that were quite inadmissible. It is therefore very improbable that the money will really be spent this year; and even if it be so, on what principle is it to be treated as a charge against revenue to be met from the taxation of a single year, when the corresponding Red Sea line, for which it is a substitute, was treated, both by the English and Indian Governments, as a charge against capital, and provision only made for the interest?

The other charge is still more exceptional. I find an item of 220,000*l.* for the new Indian Office, and 39,000*l.* for new store warehouses. The estimate for the Foreign Office, which is to be built alongside of the new Indian Office, is shown to the House of Commons, as follows: An estimate of the entire cost is given, on which a vote is taken on account, and if not spent in the year, is carried forward, and a fresh vote taken for only so much as is really required to feed the account during the year. In this way the total sum voted when the work is finished equals the total expenditure; and it is seen at a glance what it has really cost, and if the estimate has been exceeded.

After showing that owing to the mode in which the accounts were kept, the real expenditure for the year did not appear, Mr. Laing continued: I cannot understand what is meant by stating that these China advances formed no part of the annual charges of the year in which they were made. They were actually paid, I apprehend, in hard rupees, out of the cash balances of the Indian treasury, just as the stores sold after the Crimean

war had been paid for out of the cash balances at the Bank of England; these balances being in either case furnished principally by taxes, and partially by loans. This much at any rate is quite certain, that if the Home Government wished these items to be stated in some other way, they ought not to have given them in a purely revenue statement, mixed up with other revenue receipts and charges, without a word of explanation. They knew that I had complained loudly in 1861, of being compelled to bring in a budget, without anything approaching to a proper estimate for the home expenditure, and had pressed for distinct estimates; firstly, of the current revenue and expenditure of the year in England; and, secondly, of the cash transactions, including receipts and payments from railways, and on other capital and deposit accounts.

The estimate (A.) of home charges in 1862-63, is a reply to the first of these requisitions. It is essentially a revenue statement, sent for the purpose of enabling me to make a budget for the year; and not a cash-balance statement, showing other receipts and payments that are not revenue, which, in fact, was not sent until a subsequent mail, and did not reach India until after the budget had been necessarily produced in anticipation of the new financial year. In this statement, which contains no single item of charge not intended to be a charge of the year, it is said, after adding together the charges, "deduct receipts," and the repayments in question are entered along with other receipts, which are now admitted by the Secretary of State himself, to be ordinary revenue receipts; although, until I corrected the error, he actually appears to have considered the interest on cash balances invested, as not a revenue receipt of the year.

Nay, to such an extent is this carried, that, while in the accounts for 1861-62, the entire expenses of Addiscombe College are set as a charge on revenue, the fees paid by cadets are, it would seem, not to be entered as a receipt *per contra*, but (if the Secretary of State really means what he says in his despatches) are to be treated as a refund, "which it is contrary to the first principles of finance to include as current revenue."

Mr. Laing then answered other charges made against the budget; and he afterwards passed to more general matters, as follows:—

If the despatch had been confined to these two questions of account, I might now conclude my observations; but as the whole financial policy of the last year of Lord Canning's administration is, in effect, impugned, and he is unfortunately taken from the place where he could so well have defended himself, I feel it my duty to make some remarks on the general character of that policy. Our financial policy must not be taken alone, but judged as part of a great policy, the essential aim of which was to give tranquillity and restore confidence after the mutiny; to allay animosities of race and party; to create feelings of attachment among the native population to the British rule; and to carry all classes along with us in an endeavour to develop the great resources of India, and to improve the material and moral condition of its vast population.

If to this I add, that, while laying down the cardinal axiom that India was to be governed for the good of Indians, we held that one of the chief means of promoting this good was by encouraging the extension of independent European capital and enterprise, I shall have briefly summed up the principles which guided Lord Canning in every act of his administration, during the time I had the honour of serving under him.

The desired result has been in a great measure attained; but we have to

look back only a very short period to a very different state of things. When I first landed in India, in January, 1861, the aspect of affairs was full of gloom and danger. The urgency and long continuance of the financial crisis had not only created a general feeling of alarm and insecurity, but had, to a great extent, shaken confidence in the Government. Nearly all classes of the community were, for one reason or other, deeply dissatisfied, and animosities of race and party never ran higher; unless when merged, as in the case of the Mysore grant, in one common feeling of indignation at some act of the supreme authority.

The official classes had suffered to the extent of not less than twenty or twenty-five per cent. of their salaries by the excessive rise in rents, wages, and prices, and by the income-tax. Many of the military officers had suffered still more from the army reductions and amalgamations; and both civilians and military men were exasperated by what, whether rightly or wrongly, they considered the undue suspense in which they had been kept, and the want of consideration of the home authorities in dealing with their claims.

The non-official Europeans were engaged in a bitter feud with the local Bengal Government, and were loud in their complaints of systematic discouragement of independent capital and enterprise.

Among the native classes, although Lord Canning's wise policy of sanctioning the right of adoption had, to a great extent, conciliated the princes and nobles, a vast deal of smothered discontent existed among the smaller landowners, the trading classes, and the mass of the population, owing to the imposition of the income-tax, the threat of the license-tax, and the general fear of an indefinite succession of new and unpopular taxes—a fear which was made the most of by every agitator hostile to British rule.

The extent of this feeling has, I think, never been properly understood in England, where the income-tax and license-tax have been looked upon, from an English point of view, as equitable in theory, and open to no greater objections in practice than similar taxes would be in England. But there is no sort of analogy between the practical working of such taxes in England and in India. In India the attempt at classification is an infinitely greater evil than the direct incidence of the tax. The income-tax required 700,000 or 800,000, the license-tax would have required 5,000,000 or 6,000,000 taxpayers, to be assessed or arranged in classes, after more or less investigation into their means.

Such an inquiry could only be conducted by a large staff of subordinate native officials on low salaries. It is absolutely certain that it must call forth a vast amount of annoyance, chicanery, evasion, oppression, and extortion. Nor were these apprehensions chimerical; on the contrary, we were warned from all quarters by our most experienced officers, and most of all by influential natives whose fortunes were bound up with ours, and whose loyalty we could not doubt, that a great change was taking place in the feeling of large classes of the native population towards us, owing to the incidence, and still more to the apprehension, of new taxes. I shall never forget the emphatic observation of Lord Canning, at the first interview I had with him, that he deeply regretted the necessity which compelled him to impose the income-tax, and that, to use his own words, "danger for danger, he would rather risk governing India with 40,000 European troops without new taxes, than with 100,000 with them."

The risings in Assam, which were universally attributed by the local

officers to the income-tax, or rather to the use made by designing men of the terror inspired by the new English taxes, among an ignorant population, are a significant commentary on these words.

If an impression prevails here that the new taxes were a success, and the principal means of restoring the finances of India, it is important to contradict it. The deficit of 10,790,000*l.* in 1860, was converted into a surplus of 1,400,000*l.* in 1862, by reductions of more than 8,000,000*l.* in military and other expenditure in India, open to revision, and by the addition of upwards of 2,000,000*l.* to revenue from existing sources, such as land, excise, salt, and stamps, which were scarcely felt; whilst not above 1,500,000*l.* net was realised by the new direct taxes on the English model, which convulsed Indian society.

It was an object, therefore, of the first political importance to change the current of feeling produced by these unpopular measures, by proving to the native population that we were not, as they universally believed, insatiable of new taxes.

Accordingly, I always felt that I must not be satisfied with the mere financier's view of getting both ends of my budget to meet, no matter whether by reductions or by new taxes, but that I must press for such large reductions as would not only establish confidence in the energy and foresight of the supreme Government, but also so completely restore our finances as to enable us to arrest the progress of direct taxation, and alleviate its pressure. Thanks to the clear judgment and unwavering support of Lord Canning, to the valuable aid of Sir Bartle Frere, Mr. Beadon, and my colleagues in council, and to the truly Herculean labours of Colonel Balfour and the Military Finance Commission, the task was accomplished; and in less than four months after I landed, a deficit, estimated in the latest official document published by the Government of India while I was on my way out, at upwards of 6,000,000*l.*, was extinguished. The effect in India was great. Confidence in the future and in the Government was almost instantaneously restored, and the chorus of grumbling which pervaded Indian society was changed at once into one of hopefulness and satisfaction.

The further measures of Lord Canning, in sanctioning the sale of waste lands in fee simple; in resolutely holding the balance even between the Bengal Government, the ryot, and the planter; in enforcing a reform of the Bengal police, and extending small cause courts and local judges; and, finally, in straining every nerve to push forward the construction of roads and communications, completed the satisfaction of the European community.

It remained to deal with the less obtrusive but more extensive and dangerous discontent of the native population, occasioned by the new taxes. In my first budget we suspended the license-tax, from a conviction that nothing but absolute necessity could justify us in imposing such a tax on 5,000,000 or 6,000,000 of artisans, mechanics, and petty traders, in order to realize such a paltry sum as 500,000*l.* or 600,000*l.*

Two taxes, so specially and urgently objectionable that nothing but absolute necessity could justify their continuance, still remained. The arguments against the extra 5 per cent. duty on imported manufactures are too well appreciated here, to make it necessary to recapitulate them.

It only remains to notice the injunction to withhold the extra grants, destined for public works and education.

As regards education, I will only observe, that if roads are the great material want, schools are the great moral want of India; that a thirst for education is rapidly extending among the native population; and that the extra 100,000*l.*, which it is proposed to give, will elicit more than another 100,000*l.* in the way of voluntary contributions.

As regards roads, I can speak more specifically. The late able Secretary of Public Works, Colonel Yule, who left India with Lord Canning, recorded a minute in which he reviewed the whole state of public works in India. He showed conclusively that a large expenditure had been going on for many years in dribblets, by which a number of most important roads and other works had been advanced considerably towards completion without any appreciable result, because they were not finished throughout, but left in isolated sections. Even on the grand trunk-road, within a short distance of Calcutta, several interruptions worse than breaks of gauge occur, from rivers and ravines being left unbridged. Colonel Yule pointed out that if, in addition to maintaining our present rate of expenditure, we could devote 500,000*l.* a year extra, for two or three years, to the completion of such works, a very great result would be attained.

There was no object nearer to Lord Canning's heart than this, and his only doubt was, whether, with such a large cash balance, we should confine ourselves to the 500,000*l.*, which could be spared without incurring a deficit, or take a further sum avowedly from the surplus balances.

This is a grave question; and, with the certainty of the vast benefits which would infallibly accrue from the early completion of roads and works of irrigation, and in the present aspect of the cotton question, I believe nothing prevented Lord Canning from proposing the additional outlay of at least 1,000,000*l.* but the doubt whether, with an expenditure of 11,000,000*l.* a year already going on between railways and public works, more money could be spent with the existing machinery of the public works' department, without waste and extravagance.

I now conclude the last lines which I shall write in the capacity of financial member of the council of the Governor-General of India. Whether my health would have permitted of my return is doubtful, but, of course, this despatch decides the question. After sharing in what I believe to be the signal success of the concluding act of Lord Canning's Indian administration, I cannot serve under a minister who views a material part of that policy so differently, as to think that it calls for public censure and disavowal. It is now just eighteen months since I first landed in India, and, during this period, I have been absent six months from severe illness. I found India with a deficiency estimated by the Government at 6,000,000*l.*: I leave it with a surplus.

I found it with an annual expenditure, open to revision, of 29,365,066*l.*; I leave it with one of 23,454,087*l.* I found it with a cash balance below 12,000,000*l.*; I leave it with one of 17,783,978*l.*

I found it with gloom and despondency prevailing, great animosity of races and parties, and wide-spread disaffection and discontent; I leave it with one universal feeling of hopefulness and satisfaction, and amidst general expressions of loyalty and attachment from the natives of India to the British rule.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Further Papers relating to the Affairs of British Columbia.

GOVERNOR DOUGLAS, writing from Victoria, Vancouver Island, in the months of February and March, 1860, gave an account of the progress of the colony, and recommended that some encouragement should be given to the establishment of an ordained and educated clergy in British Columbia, by making free grants of land for their use. The last intelligence respecting gold was not so favourable. British Columbia was becoming highly attractive to the Chinese, who were arriving in great numbers. In May Governor Douglas made a tour to Pitt Lake, distant about forty miles from New Westminster, part of which he described as follows:—

The banks of Pitt River are exceedingly beautiful; extensive meadows sweep gracefully from the very edge of the river towards the distant line of forest and mountain. The rich alluvial soil produces a thick growth of grass interspersed with the Michaelmas daisy, the wild rose, and scattered groups of willows. This fine district contains an area of 20,000 acres of good arable land, requiring no clearing from timber, and ready for the immediate operations of the plough. Many parts of it are, however, exposed to overflow, through the periodical inundations of the Fraser, which commence about the first week in June, and generally subside before the middle of July. Owing to this circumstance the Pitt River meadows are not adapted for raising wheat and other cereals which require the entire season to mature, but may be turned to good account in growing hay and every kind of root crop, and may also be used extensively for pasturing cattle, and for the purposes of the dairy.

The Brunette, Coquitlum, and Whytus, the latter opposite the site of Derby, are streams accessible by boat or canoe for some distance from their debouche into Fraser River; their importance to the district, as an easy and inexpensive means of communication, is very great, seeing that they form a series of natural canals, intersecting the country in all directions, and admirably adapted for the transport of goods and produce to and from the navigable waters of the Fraser.

The banks of Fraser River are almost everywhere covered with woods. Varieties of pine and firs of prodigious size, and large poplar-trees, predominate. The vine and soft maple, the wild apple-tree, the white and black thorn, and deciduous bushes in great variety, form the massive undergrowth. The vegetation is luxuriant almost beyond conception, and at this season of the year presents a peculiarly beautiful appearance. The eye never tires of ranging over the varied shades of the fresh green foliage, mingling with the clustering white flowers of the wild apple-tree, now in full blossom, and filling the air with delicious fragrance. As a boat, gliding swiftly over the surface of the smooth waters, occasionally sweeps beneath the overhanging boughs which form a canopy of leaves, impervious to the sun's scorching rays, the effect is enchanting; yet amidst all this wealth and luxuriance of nature, one cannot repress the wish that those gorgeous forests might soon be swept away by the efforts of human industry, and give place to cultivated fields and the other accessories of civilization. This, however, will be a work of time, though there is no doubt that the facilities and inducements now held out to settlers in this colony by the pre-emptive law and other enactments, might enable thousands of the

destitute poor of Britain, by a few years of steady industry, to secure for themselves happy homes and a comfortable independence for life. In his progress through Hope and Yale the Governor had occasion to suggest improvements in the means of communication.

In October, 1860, the Governor gave a further description of another excursion he had through the country, as follows:—The country between Douglas and Cayoosh probably contains a smaller proportion of agricultural land than any other district in British Columbia. The whole district may be truly described as a succession of valleys and mountains covered with woods almost to their rocky summits, and abounding in rivers and streams of every size. Forests of magnificent trees and great water-power constitute its natural advantages; its metalliferous resources, though probably vast, having yet to be explored.

Houses and fields begin, here and there, to break the cheerless solitude of the valleys, and in no instance that came under the Governor's notice, has the husbandman been disappointed of his reward. Its genial climate may be inferred from the fact that tomatoes ripen in the open air, and had come to full maturity at the end of August; when melons raised in the same manner were nearly fit for use. The settlers, though few in number, were full of hope and confidence; pleased with the country, and satisfied from experience that the climate is one of the healthiest in the world. The winters are moderate, the minimum temperature being zero, Fahrenheit; but the cold is seldom so severe. The lakes have never been known to freeze, nor the snow to lie so deep as to interrupt the ordinary traffic of the road.

The district was, in short, not wanting in any of those conditions which contribute to the comfort and happiness of man; and should the explorations now in progress add the precious metals to its known elements of wealth, there will be no want of inducements to attract and retain an industrious population.

As the road advances from Port Seaton towards Fraser River, a marked change is observable in the character of the country; the mountains are left behind, the massive forests gradually disappear, and are succeeded by green hills and open plains, dotted with fine old trees of the species *pinus ponderosa*. The change is grateful, the contrast bringing into bolder relief the charming scenery of Cayoosh, which is situated about half a mile from Fraser River.

This being the centre of a flourishing trade, where all goods brought from Douglas are necessarily deposited in their transit to the interior, and the chief town of a valuable mining district, a stipendiary magistrate, Mr. Thomas Elwyn, who also acted as gold commissioner, was stationed here. Successful attempts at cultivation have been made on a small scale near the town, and streams of water from the neighbouring hills have been skilfully diverted from their natural course and applied to the important purposes of mining, and of irrigating the soil, which thereby acquires a degree of fertility and productiveness otherwise unattainable in a climate seldom visited by summer showers. Cayoosh was thus a place of much real and prospective importance. The Governor found nothing defective in the state of the public administration. The people were satisfied with the laws. The district accounts appeared to be kept with order and regularity, and returns of the local revenue have been duly made at proper intervals to the colonial treasurer. The regular establishment consists of a magistrate and one constable, who attend to all duties connected with the public

service; the former being, however, fully authorized to employ casual aid whenever emergencies arise.

There appeared to be no local grievance affecting the interests of the town or district, nor was any change suggested in the mining or general laws of the country. All that was urged was the early sale of town lots at Cayoosh, protection for the Chinese miners, and the removal of stake nets and all obstructions having the effect of preventing the ascent of salmon from the sea to the inland rivers.

The country situated between Lytton and Rock Creek was highly attractive, and no other part of British Columbia, nor of the United States territory north of Columbia River, offered so many inducements in point of soil and climate to the enterprising emigrant. Its distance from the coast, and difficulties of access have hitherto almost excluded it from intercourse; but as those impediments are removed by the formation of roads, now in rapid progress, from the navigable points of Fraser River, it will no doubt become a centre of population and the seat of flourishing settlements. The Governor did not attempt to describe its physical aspect; but to give a general idea in a few words, he observed that it formed an elevated table-land of great extent, sometimes rising into hills, and is traversed by many noble valleys, and watered by numberless streams flowing into its great arteries, the Thompson, Shimilkomeen, and Okanagon Rivers. There are many varieties of soils, much arable land, and a great deal that is fit only for pasture; but as a remark generally applicable, he observed that the valleys contain a large extent of good open land; while the steeply swelling hills are mostly covered with trees formed into groups, or growing with park-like regularity, widely apart and free from brush or underwood; but the peculiar feature of the country is the profusion of grass that covers both woodland and meadow, affording rich pastures for domestic animals, a circumstance which gives to this district an extraordinary value, as every part of the surface, whether hill or valley, may be turned to account and made available either for tillage or stock farming.

The climate, like that of all other parts of the colony, was perfectly healthy; and there was much less humidity at all seasons than in the districts bordering on Fraser River. Vegetation was, nevertheless, fresh and green to a degree that was hardly to be expected at that time of the year. The seasons exhibited no extremes of temperature; the summers being warm, and the winters sharp but not severe. The lakes, except the Okanagon, and all the rivers, freeze in winter; and there are occasional falls of snow, but it seldom lies in the valleys more than a few weeks at a time. The fact that horses and domestic cattle are left out all winter to shift for themselves, and generally thrive without any care on the range of the country, is probably, however, a better criterion of the temperature than any other circumstance that can be adduced. It is, in short, a very pleasant and desirable part of the colony, possesses a healthy climate and many other advantages, pastures being already formed where thousands of cattle may find food; and the industrious colonist will find it much better and easier to raise crops than in the woodland districts, where it takes much labour and expense to clear a small space.

After five days' travel in a fine open country, the party reached the main branch of the Shimilkomeen River, a few miles below the lately discovered gold diggings, where 80 or 100 miners were at work, all seemingly in high spirits, pleased with the country, and elated with their prospects and earnings.

Many of them were engaged in putting up log-huts, and making other preparations, as they intended to winter there if they succeed in having supplies of flour and other necessities brought from Hope before the mountains become impassable from snow. As that was clearly impossible without greater facilities of communication, it was evident they would have no alternative but to desert their claims and leave the country, at a serious loss to themselves and to the colony.

In November, 1860, Governor Douglas sent some extracts from a communication, dated Alexandria, 17th of October, by Mr. Philip H. Nind, Magistrate and Gold Commissioner for Alexandria, from which it appeared that he had, from various causes, encountered much detention on his route to Alexandria. His arrival in the district was hailed with a general feeling of satisfaction, and his services were immediately called into requisition by the complaints of the inhabitants against a few notorious evil-doers who had taken refuge there, and become the terror of the place. The most vigorous measures were at once set on foot to bring them to justice, and one of the number was soon afterwards apprehended and committed for trial; but the others could nowhere be found, and are supposed to have fled over the frontier into Oregon. Mr. Nind had temporarily established his head-quarters at William's Lake, on account of its central position, from whence diverge, as from a common focus, all the routes leading to the upper and lower country.

The rate of wages to hired labourers was five and six dollars a day, and of provisions and other necessities about the same as at Alexandria, in some instances a little lower from the great amount of competition.

Ferguson's or Rich Bar when first discovered proved highly auriferous, as much as 60 dollars a day to the hand having been made; but after the pay-streak near the river became exhausted, the flat in the rear had to be pierced, and the gravel wheeled over plank roads for some hundreds of yards to be rocked out at the river; the profits, consequently, of the day's labour considerably decreased, so that the average receipts were from seven to ten dollars a day to the hand. As soon, however, as water can be brought on for sluicing there is no doubt but that high wages will be made. Unlike the bars on the Lower Fraser, the ground is here unobstructed by heavy timber or roots, and the miner finds that not only does the pay-streak yield gold, but also the sand overlying it in sufficient quantities to pay for the washing. It is the general opinion that there will be employment on this bar for more than a hundred men, and that it will not be exhausted in less than two or three years. The introduction of water is an operation requiring considerable capital and engineering skill. The ditch is cut from a lake situated between four and five miles to the north-east, and has to be brought on by means of a long tunnel; the expense of completing it is calculated at 12,000 dollars.

Three miles below Ferguson's Bar is British Bar, where a company of six Cornishmen are bringing in a ditch about five miles in length for their own use. The bar is but of small size. No miners were noticed between here and Alexandria, though there were signs of work done in the spring. The Fraser, between Alexandria and Quesnel River, is a swift but not turbulent river, averaging from 200 to 300 yards across; it has a few small ripples, but none of the dangerous whirlpools so common in its lower course; the navigation does not appear difficult; Ferguson's Bar being supplied with necessities by boats from Alexandria, which make the trip of sixty miles in about two days and a half.

Between Alexandria and Fort George, there were but two impediments to steamboat navigation which it would be difficult to surmount, viz., two passes or cañons where the river narrows and rushes violently through precipitous rocks. The physical features on the Upper Fraser, that attract the attention of the miner, are three:—1st. Its benches, bars, and flats; 2nd. Its earth-slides, and high banks, displaying several strata of wash gravel; 3rd. The water in its vicinity that can be made available for mining. The first are very extensive, and some have been worked with rockers; but rockers are really only an advanced kind of prospecting apparatus, and stand in the same relation to sluicing and the hydraulic-pipe as the Chilian arastra does to the Californian quartz-mill; in both cases the deposit of gold must be very large to yield remuneration to the employers of so limited and primitive a method of obtaining it. Respecting the second feature, the earth-slides and high banks yield the "colour" to prospectors, and in many cases, two or three cents to the pan; were the hydraulic-pipe brought to bear upon them, ground that is now unemployed would be highly remunerative.

Respecting water, this great essential to extensive mining operations can be procured without much difficulty, though not without labour and expense; for if streams are less frequently met with descending from these wooded hills than flow from the snow-topped mountains of the Lower Fraser, yet the great number of lakes situated within accessible distances of either bank, would afford a supply entirely independent of rain-fall or melting snow. At present the country is struggling against the high rate of provisions and necessaries; the class of men that arrive in the spring have but enough money to purchase a few weeks' provisions, they cannot afford to work for the future, but must make money immediately or return, so that a thorough testing or development of the auriferous resources of this particular section of country, till very considerable reduction takes place in the price of things, is not to be looked for. The Governor conversed with many men who have been prospecting from Alexandria to the furthest point hitherto reached, and he found even amongst the unsuccessful no disbelief in the richness of the mines, but a general impression to return next year and try their luck again. Amongst the geological phenomena of this portion of Fraser River, there is much to attract attention, more particularly a dark brown substance which the people call coal; on Ferguson's Bar and the adjacent banks many detached pieces lie scattered about, and the Governor was informed by a person on that bar that he had used it for blacksmithing purposes and found it to answer. Some eight or nine miles above Alexandria, where the river, from a north and south course, makes an almost rectangular bend to the east, a high bank displays a complete stratum of this singular formation. The Governor collected some specimens of it, and found on examination that its specific gravity was much lighter than that of coal, that it did not soil the fingers, and that the grain of the wood was distinctly visible. He apprehended it to be lignite in a transition state, but whether it could be utilized for commercial purposes, he was unable to judge. The banks of the river here are of considerable altitude, and are composed of a kind of indurated clay, called by the miners trap-stone; they have been worn by the action of the water into cylindrical forms, and assume the appearance of buttresses and columns. The trail between Alexandria and Ferguson's Bar passes through some exceedingly rich open land, consisting of heavy black loam with a subsoil of clay, apparently well adapted to the

growth of wheat. The land that Mr. Davidson has pre-empted has produced excellent crops, a small patch of less than half an acre has returned twenty bushels of wheat, and the turnips and cabbages would be considered fine in any country. Mr. Davidson owns several head of cattle, a yoke of oxen, waggon, and other agricultural implements. Finding his experiments so successful, he is preparing to farm next year more extensively, and is anxious to purchase land in addition to his pre-emption claim. Several white men and Indians are at present in his employ. A substantial and commodious log-house has been built, and farm buildings are in process of erection. The price of vegetables on the ground has ranged from 20 cents a lb. to 12½, onions excepted, which have never been sold for less than 50 cents a lb. Several of the hills that enclose the valley of William's Lake are covered with pasture of the finest description, and in the valley and on the slopes are hundreds of acres of prairie that would repay the labour of the agriculturist. The timber on these hills principally consists of Douglas pine, larch, fir, and balsam; the larger trees make useful lumber, free from knots. Since the Governor resided in this district, the weather, during the early part of September was unsettled, but it had been exceedingly fine from the middle of that month till November; when latterly the frosts had been sharp at night, but the thermometer in his tent ranged between 60° and 70° during the middle of the day. The Governor had been enabled from the central position of this spot to transact a good deal of business with miners and traders returning from the upper country. The Indians around here seem well disposed; some work well and readily, and are very intelligent, and would be, it was thought, susceptible of the influences of civilization; others, on the contrary, are extremely indolent, and neglect providing against the wants of to-morrow if supplied with food for to-day. As there has been a dearth of salmon this summer, it was much feared they will suffer severely this winter; the greater number talk of wintering on the Thompson River and at Cayoosh. The Governor received intelligence from Hope and Yale up to the 29th of November. The Gold Commissioners reported that the weather had been so far most favourable for mining operations, and that nearly all the miners in those districts had built comfortable houses, where they intend to remain for the winter. Some miners from the Caribœuf country had lately arrived at Hope with very fine specimens of lump gold worth from 1*l.* to 8*l.* a piece; their object being to remain at Hope until the winter is over, when they propose returning to their distant mining claims. The miners at Shimilkomeen were making fair wages, varying from 30*s.* to 60*s.* a day to the man; and there was a sufficient stock of food in that part of the country to last till spring. In consequence of the number of new steamboats which have been lately built here and commenced running on Fraser River, the charge for freights from this place to Hope has fallen to 20*s.* a ton, being a reduction of 300 per cent. on the former rates of transport.

In July, 1861, Governor Douglas continued the description of the country since his departure from Lytton.

Leaving that place he travelled for thirty-five miles along the banks of Thompson's River by a good horse road lately made at a trifling cost, and successively visited the Buonaparte and Hat Rivers, and the Pavilion, where he fell upon the Fraser, and followed it downwards to Cayoosh. The district comprehended within those limits is exceedingly beautiful and picturesque, being composed of a succession of hills and valleys, lakes and

rivers, exhibiting to the traveller accustomed to the endless forests of the coast districts, the unusual and grateful spectacle of miles of green hills, curving slopes, and level meadows, almost without a bush or tree to obstruct the view, and even to the very hill-tops producing an abundant growth of grass. It is of great value as a grazing district, a circumstance which appears to be thoroughly understood and appreciated by the country packers, who are in the habit of leaving their mules and horses here when the regular work of packing goods to the mines is suspended for the winter. The animals, even at that season, are said to improve in condition, though left to seek their own food, and to roam at large over the country, a fact which speaks volumes in favour of the climate and of the natural pastures. It has certainly never been the Governor's good fortune to visit a country more pleasing to the eye, or possessing a more healthy and agreeable climate, or a greater extent of fine pasture land; and there is no doubt that with a smaller amount of labour and outlay than in almost any other colony, the energetic settler may soon surround himself with all the elements of affluence and comfort.

Notwithstanding these advantages, such have hitherto been the difficulties of access, that the course of regular settlement has hardly yet commenced.

The cold is never severe; the greatest depth of snow in 1859 was twelve inches, and the following winter it did not exceed six inches. Ploughing commences about the middle of March. The summers are generally dry, and Mr. Reynolds was of opinion that irrigation will be found an indispensable application in the process of husbandry in this district. In the dry summer of 1859 he kept water almost constantly running through his fields; but applied it only twice during the summer of 1860, when the moisture of the atmosphere proved otherwise sufficient for the crops.

The numerous streams which permeate the valleys of this district afford admirable facilities for inexpensive irrigation; so bountiful indeed has nature been in this respect, that it is hardly an exaggeration to say that there is a watercourse or rivulet for every moderate-sized farm that will be opened in the district. A few successful experiments in husbandry will give confidence, and add to the number of the farming class, which continues to be in a lamentable minority in every part of the colony, even in districts where one would suppose mining to be a less profitable pursuit than the cultivation of the soil.

The mining districts of Thompson's River, and of the Fraser below the Pavilion, have been almost abandoned by the white miners of the colony, who have been generally carried away by the prevailing excitement to the Caribou and Antler Creek mines; and their claims are now occupied by Chinamen and native Indians, the latter especially exhibiting an unwonted degree of activity in mining. Their daily earnings sometimes reach the large sum of two pounds sterling, and never fall short of eight shillings, so that they are becoming exceedingly valuable to the colony, both as producers and as a tax-paying population. The Governor, in fact, ascertained from the official returns of Yale, that thirty per cent. of the amount of roads' tolls was levied directly on the goods of Indians leaving that place; and from their numbers and habits it may be fairly assumed that forty per cent. of the whole revenue collectively accruing from tolls and customs falls on them.

The mines on Tranquille River have lately attracted much attention, in consequence of quantities of coarse gold having been found in pieces

weighing as much as three quarters of an ounce; and the discovery of a stratum of auriferous earth, in mining phrase "pay dirt," from three to four feet in thickness, at a much higher level than the present bed of the river, which until then was supposed to be the exclusive depository of gold. This circumstance has given a new direction to the industry of the place, the miners having less faith in surface diggings, and being generally impressed with the advantage of deeper sinkings, which may probably reveal, as was the case in the gold fields of Victoria, greater wealth than has yet been found; and this, in the Governor's opinion, is simply a question of time

There are extensive flats or holmes in the valley of the Thompson that give a large return of gold; but being above the river, they cannot be worked to much advantage until water from a higher level than can be applied to sluicing is brought into play. Several smooth water-worn nuggets, weighing as much as two ounces, have been found on the Thompson below Lake Kamloops; and diggings have been lately discovered on three of the affluents of North River (north branch of the Thompson). The streams flowing from the eastward into Okanagan Lake are also reported to be highly productive of gold—facts, which all tend to support the theory alluded to in the Governor's despatch of the 4th of June last, regarding the existence of a vast auriferous ridge or water-shed, extending from Rock Creek to Fort George, and dividing the Columbia from the waters of Fraser River.

In September 1861, the Governor informed the Duke of Newcastle that there was a continuous exodus of the mining population from their respective districts towards the "Cariboo."

The most extraordinary accounts of the wealth of that gold-field are received by every succeeding steamer from British Columbia; and those accounts are confirmed by letters from the merchants and traders of the district, and by fortunate adventurers who have realized, by a few weeks' labour, their thousands of dollars. It would in fact appear that Cariboo is at least equal, in point of auriferous wealth, to the best parts of California; and it is believed the gold deposits of British Columbia will be found to be distributed over a far more extensive space. The Governor was unable to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion as to the average daily earnings of miners in the Cariboo country, but some idea may be formed of the large sums realized, from the fact that 195 ounces of gold were taken in one day out of a single mining claim; while ordinary claims yield as much as forty and fifty dollars a day to the man: but perhaps the most telling circumstance is the high price of labour, which has attained to the extraordinary sum of ten dollars a day; and any number of men may find employment at that rate of pay. The Cariboo gold district was discovered by a fine athletic young man of the name of McDonnell, a native of the island of Cape Breton, of mixed French and Scotch descent, combining, in his personal appearance and character, the courage, activity, and remarkable powers of endurance of both races. His health has suffered from three years' constant exposure and privation, which induced him to repair, with his well-earned wealth, to this colony for medical assistance. His verbal report was interesting, and conveys the idea of an almost exhaustless gold field, extending through the quartz and slate formations, in a northerly direction from Cariboo Lake. The following well-attested instances of successful mining at Cariboo may prove interesting, and will probably convey

to her Majesty's Government a more precise idea of the value and real character of this gold-field than any mere generalizations.

John McArthur and Thomas Phillips arrived here from Cariboo on the 17th of August last, with 9,000 dollars worth of gold-dust in their possession, being the fruits of three months' residence at the mines. They arrived there on the 1st day of May, and left again on the 1st day of August, having previously sold their mining claim at a high price to other persons. Their largest earnings for one day amounted to 525 dollars; and no single day's work yielded less than 25 dollars. Both those persons have been mining in California, and are acquainted with its resources, yet they give it as their opinion that Cariboo, as a "generally paying" country surpasses the best days of California. Mr. Patterson and brother arrived at New Westminster by the steamer of the 14th instant, with 10,000 dollars worth of gold-dust, the produce of five weeks' work at Cariboo. The Governor inspected their treasure, of which they were justly proud, being the well-earned reward of their skill and enterprise. Mr. Patterson's mining claim was on the Lowhee, a tributary of Swift River, and about 16 miles distant from Antler Creek. The ground was composed of gravel and many quartz boulders, and the depth to the bed-rock was from four to six feet, beyond which he did not attempt to penetrate, though the richest deposit of gold was immediately over the bed-rock. The largest day's return from the claim was 73 ounces of gold, worth about 1,200 dollars; on another occasion he received 70 ounces at the close of a day's work. The gold is in rough jagged pieces, the largest found by Mr. Patterson was over six ounces; but on the next claim to his, a piece of ten ounces was picked up by the lucky proprietor. Mr. Patterson sold his mining claim before his departure from Cariboo, and is now returning to his native country, the United States, with the wealth he has so rapidly acquired in British Columbia, this being one of the evils to which the colony is exposed through the want of a fixed population.

On the subject of the grants of land for religious purposes, the Duke of Newcastle wrote to Governor Douglas, on the 19th May, 1860, that he approved of the grants of about one acre each already made to the clergy of the Church of England and the Methodist Episcopal Church as sites for a church, school, and dwelling-house, and that the Governor would also be at liberty to make similar grants in all towns in the colony where ordained ministers of the Gospel may take up their residence, and where congregations might be established and require their assistance; but that care should be taken that the land shall be appropriated to the purposes for which it was intended, and that it shall be so conveyed as to be secure against the possibility of misapplication in future years.

As to the further proposal, that free grants of 100 acres of rural land should be made in aid of every cure established in British Columbia, and not otherwise supported at the public expense, the duke considered it to be open to serious objections. The experience afforded by other colonies tends to show that where a clergyman in a new colony has to depend on his land for his principal means of subsistence, he must, to make it answer, devote to it so much of his time as seriously to interfere with his usefulness; and unless he does this, the endowment becomes only an apparent, not a real provision for him. He cannot let it, because land in a new settlement is never, except under very peculiar circumstances, taken on lease, and to employ hired labour would generally be beyond the means of a clergyman so situated.

For these reasons the Duke of Newcastle was unable to sanction the measure which the Governor proposed. The practice of making grants of land as endowments to livings in the colonies has been generally discontinued for many years, and the Duke much doubted whether it was not better for a clergyman to depend entirely on the liberality of his congregation than to be provided with an endowment which, though no substantial assistance to him, may be an excuse to such of his congregation as are disposed to withhold their aid.

With reference to the same subject, another despatch was sent on the 26th October by the Duke of Newcastle to the effect that, though for the reasons already communicated, the Secretary of State could not sanction the grants of rural land, he saw no objection to the Governor affording a temporary pecuniary assistance to ministers of religion in British Columbia from colonial funds, if those funds are adequate for the purpose, and if he had sufficient reason for believing that such an appropriation of public money will not be unacceptable to the colonists.

Charged as the Governor was with the task of expending, on his own responsibility, the produce of the taxes, it was peculiarly necessary for him to avoid the appearance of individual preference or partiality. The Duke thought, therefore, that the public aid given to ministers of religion should not be confined to any specified denominations, but should, if possible, be determined by a generally intelligible rule, which, while furnishing some security against useless or improper appropriations, will not suggest any distinction between ministers of different persuasions, who may be exerting themselves with equal earnestness for the good of the community. It might be required, for example, as a condition to any grant of money, that a memorial should be presented to the Governor, signed by a certain number or proportion of persons resident within a certain district, and either offering to meet the Government grant by certain immediate or annual contributions of their own, or stating that from some source or other such contributions had been made. This, however, was merely suggested by the Secretary of State as an illustration. He was fully aware that the Governor's own knowledge of the exigencies of the colony, of the temper and wishes of the population, and of the assistance to be derived there from religious persons or societies, would enable him to choose his own course in a matter of detail more appropriately than he himself could do. But, in any case, the Governor should take care to make it clearly understood that any assistance of this kind is temporary, and that if given in the form of an annual payment, all those who receive it must not calculate on retaining it after it has ceased to be sanctioned by the public opinion of the colony, and consistent with other demands on the revenue.

The colony was increasing in extent and population. In 1860, its area was 200,000 square miles, and its population 11,816. The revenue amounted to 58,396*l.* and the expenditure to 69,950*l.* The shipping entered in 1860 was 31,551 tons, and, in 1861, 16,025 tons; and cleared, in 1860, 31,488 tons, and, in 1861, 15,817 tons. The amount of imports, in 1860, was 257,389*l.*, and, in 1861, 282,880*l.* And of exports, in 1860, 11,400*l.*, and, in 1861, 12,686*l.* The articles of exports were—furs, 10,000*l.*; ice, 830*l.*; and lumber, 683*l.*

EAST INDIA (OUDE CLAIMS).

Copy of a Letter from the Governor-General of India in Council dated the 7th of September 1861, in reply to a Letter from the Secretary of State for India, dated the 26th day of May, 1860, on the subject of certain Claims against the late Native State of Oude, and of any reply thereto, from the Secretary of State. (Colonel French.) 14th February, 1862. (34.)

IN answer to a despatch of the Court of Directors, dated the 17th June, 1857, respecting certain claims upon the late Government of Oude, the Governor-General in Council wrote that as soon as it was practicable, they desired Sir Barnes Peacock, then the fourth ordinary member of council, to deliver a sound and impartial judgment of the question; and they enclosed a minute by Sir Barnes Peacock, first on Colonel Frith's claims. This was a claim alleged to be due to Mr. Frith as representative of his late grandfather Colonel Robert Frith upon the bond entered into by Azoff-ul-Dowlah, dated July 31, 1785.

It appears that the debt has been actually and finally repudiated by two nawabs, and one king of Oude, and it has been virtually repudiated by their successors, all of whom have dealt with the revenues of the State as if the claim had never existed. If the debt ought to have been satisfied at all out of the State which accrued after the death of Azof-ul-Dowlah, it ought to have been paid by Saadut Ally or his son Ghazee Oodden Hyder out of the treasure saved by the former from the revenues of the State to which the latter succeeded, but they both repudiated the debt, and applied those funds to other purposes. Sir B. Peacock did not think that the British Government, by reason of their acquisition of the revenues of Oude, were in any way bound to enter into the consideration of a question which has been finally decided by the former rulers of that State who have dealt with the revenues upon the footing of that decision. Even admitting that their decision was wrong, and that Saadut Ally was morally bound to pay the debts of Azof-ul-Dowlah, the British Government are no more responsible for his shortcomings in this respect, than they are for any of the delinquencies or omissions of the former rulers of the State.

If Azof-ul-Dowlah having sufficient funds from the revenues to enable him to discharge his debts, had applied those funds to his own private purposes leaving his debts unpaid, the British Government would surely not have been bound to pay those debts in consequence of their obtaining the possession of the revenues seventy years after the debts were contracted, and if not, there does not appear to be any valid ground for contending that the people of the present generation ought to bear the burthen of those debts, which, if they had not been repudiated, might have been paid out of Saadut Ally's savings from the revenues during the period of his rule. The people of Oude gained nothing by his amassing the great wealth which was inherited by his son, nor would the State have been injured if he or his son had appropriated a portion of his revenues to the payment of the debts of Azof-ul-Dowlah, instead of appropriating them as they did; but, as rulers of the State, they repudiated the debts, and applied the surplus revenues in a manner wholly unprofitable to the State.

It cannot be urged that if the province of Oude had never been annexed, the alleged creditors of Azof-ul-Dowlah would have been paid by the native government to which the British Government succeeded. The native

government had absolutely repudiated the debts, and it is quite clear that they never would have paid them.

In 1790 Mr. Frith claimed 1,00,000 rupees only of the principal due on the bond. In 1798 he claimed 1,50,000 rs. as his share. His son and grandson have increased the demand of principal due on the bond to 2,70,000 rs. Notwithstanding these variances, important under any circumstances, but still more so when interest at 12 per cent. from 1785 to the present time is claimed, Sir B. Peacock thought it was clear that Colonel Frith's share of the principal of the bond did not exceed 1,00,000 rupees, and which he claimed at first. It is also clear that he received that amount upon a tunkah, and that the rest of the European creditors, with the exception of Mr. Bruce, compromised their claims in 1795, by receiving the principal without interest, and that they received better terms than the native creditors; that a great portion of Colonel Frith's share in the principal of the bond was not for money advanced, but for arrears of salary of 5,000 rupees a month, to which Colonel Frith, though only a captain at the time, having been aide-de-camp to Warren Hastings in 1782, 1783, and 1784, was appointed just previously to the latter's leaving India (a salary which appears to have been exorbitant for a captain in the army); that Colonel Frith was not included in the list of creditors made out by the minister, Rajah Tuckatt Roy, and sent to Mr. Cherry, the resident, in 1795; that no sufficient explanation is given why, if he considered that Azoff-ul-Dowlah was his debtor, Colonel Frith did not bring forward his claim when Azoff-ul-Dowlah was settling his debts in 1795, but waited until 1798, a year after his death, Azoff-ul-Dowlah having died in 1797; that this claim has not been brought forward in a manner calculated to afford much confidence that any portion of the demand remains fairly due. As to the second item of the demand, viz, one year's allowance, 60,000 rupees and interest thereon at 12 per cent., the Governor did not think that the Government in 1857 was called upon to pay salaries which became due to officers in 1785, either with interest at 12 per cent., or without interest, even if it were clear that the salaries were just and equitable. But still less ought such salaries to be paid when the circumstances under which the appointments were made, lead to the conclusion that the interests of the officer rather than those of the State were considered in the arrangement.

In 1790 a claim was brought forward by Major Darell for arrears of salary due to him from the Vizier, amounting to 98,000 rupees; the Government determined "that as it came in every respect under the description of a private debt, it would be no less improper with regard to the Vizier than derogatory to the dignity of the Government, to take any concern in soliciting the payment of it, and of this decision the Court approved."

The claim of Colonel Frith was considered by the Committee of Correspondence to be similar in its nature to that of Major Darell. If the debt was a private debt, it could not, Sir B. Peacock thought, constitute a valid claim against the revenues of Oude, in the hands of the East India Company, looking upon them in the character of successors, and still less so if they are to be looked upon as the paramount power.

For the above reasons Sir B. Peacock recommended that Mr. Frith's claim be rejected altogether.

COLONIAL STATISTICS.

Statistical Tables relating to the Colonial and other Possessions of the United Kingdom.

INDIA.

Area and Population.—The total area of British India was 933,722 square miles, with a population of 135,634,244. The native states comprised 629,225 square miles, and 51,542,930 inhabitants. The foreign states 1254 square miles, with 517,149 inhabitants.

Finance.—In 1860, the revenue amounted to 39,705,822*l.*; the expenditure, 44,622,269*l.*; leaving a deficiency of 4,916,447*l.*, which, added to 7,239,451*l.*, made a net deficiency of 12,155,898*l.* The net receipts consisted of—18,429,336*l.* from land, excise, sayer, abkarry, and mouturpha; 199,712*l.* from the Mint, 180,868*l.* from the Post-office, 699,671*l.* from stamp duties, 3,701,210*l.* from customs, 2,313,218*l.* from salt, 5,169,778*l.* from opium, and 4,656,767*l.* from miscellanies, including tributes, subsidies, interest on arrears of revenue, &c. The expenditure was as follows:—Civil and political establishments, 3,834,838*l.*; judicial and police charges, 3,810,363*l.*; military charges, 29,900,556*l.*; marine and pilotage charges, 791,179*l.*; interest of debt, 3,123,328*l.*; other charges, comprising collection of revenue, 12,153,065*l.* Home charges—payments in England, 5,853,413*l.*; value of stores sent from England to India, 1,386,038*l.* The public debt of India was—Indian debt, 71,969,460*l.*; interest, 3,123,327; in England—bond debt, 6,809,000; debenture, and other loans, 19,320,000*l.*; interest paid, 766,864*l.*; total debt, 98,107,460*l.*; interest paid, 3,889,191*l.* The principal amount of the registered debt of British India bears interest at 4, 4½, and 5 per cent.

Shipping.—In 1860, the total number of vessels entered was 21,190, of 2,574,969 tons; and cleared, 20,458 vessels, 2,523,983 tons: total, 41,648 vessels, 4,898,952 tons; of which 6872 vessels, 3,635,565 tons were European and others not native; and 34,020 vessels, 1,263,387 tons native, exclusive of those engaged in the coasting trade of the British States. Of the European, 6426 vessels, 2,918,001 tons were British; and 793 vessels, 361,492 tons were other Europeans. The number of vessels entered and cleared in each presidency was as follows:—In Bengal, 3640 vessels, 1,796,361 tons; in Madras, 14,432 vessels, 1,453,977 tons; in Bombay, 23,576 vessels, 1,648,614 tons.

Railways.—The total amount of railway guaranteed capital paid up to 31st December, 1860, was 32,367,090*l.*; interest due thereon, 1,613,347*l.* The length of line open was 752 miles. The number of passengers was 3,887,944. The receipt from passengers, 221,869*l.*

Commerce.—In the year ended 30th April, 1860, the amount of imports was 40,622,103*l.*, and of exports, 28,889,210*l.* The imports included—24,265,140*l.* merchandize, 16,356,963*l.* treasure: total, 40,622,103*l.* The value of imports at each presidency was as follows:—Bengal, 20,717,598*l.*; Madras, 3,000,846*l.*; Bombay, 16,903,659*l.* The merchandize imported consisted principally of cotton twist and yarn and piece goods, metals and machinery, and military and naval stores. The treasure consisted of 4,288,037*l.* gold, and 12,068,926*l.* silver. The exports consisted of 27,960,203*l.* merchandize, and 929,007*l.* treasure, the latter principally to

Ceylon. The exports of merchandize comprised—cotton, raw, 5,637,624*l*.; opium, 9,054,394*l*.; grains, 2,588,562*l*.; shawls, Cashmere, 1,548,721*l*.; sugar and sugar candy, 1,031,944*l*., &c. &c.

CANADA.

The area of Upper and Lower Canada was 242,482 square miles; the population, in 1861, 2,507,657; viz., Upper Canada, 1,396,091; Lower Canada, 1,111,566.

Finance.—In 1860, the net revenue was 7,932,588*l*., and the expenditure, 7,499,114*l*. The public debt amounted to 12,144,264*l*., bearing 656,608*l*. interest.

Shipping.—In 1860, including sea and inland navigation, there were entered 4,645,594 tons, and cleared 4,427,569 tons. The sea navigation comprised 831,434 tons entered, and 821,791 tons cleared. There were built in 1860, 74 vessels, 23,993 tons; and registered, 130 vessels, 36,207 tons.

Commerce.—The value of imports was 7,176,653*l*., and of exports, 7,214,978*l*. The imports from the United States amounted to 2,629,661*l*. of produce of the United States, and 968,886*l*. not produce of the United States. There were also passed through the United States under bond, goods of the value of 633,724*l*. The total value of the goods enumerated in the Reciprocity Treaty, being the growth and produce of the United States, and imported into Canada, was 1,472,729*l*. The value of imports from sea, *viâ* the *St. Lawrence*, was 2,822,638*l*. There were in Canada 1892 miles of railway open.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

The area of this colony was 27,037 square miles; and the population, in 1851, 193,800. In 1860, the revenue was 178,664*l*., and the expenditure, 174,419*l*. The public debt was 1,035,614*l*.

Shipping.—In 1860, there were entered 631,779 tons, and cleared 665,595 tons. There belonged in that year to the colony 825 vessels, 147,083 tons. The value of imports was 1,446,740*l*., and of exports, 916,372*l*. The produce of 1860 was—wheat, 206,635 qrs.; barley, 74,300 qrs.; oats, 1,411,164 qrs.; buckwheat, 689,014 qrs.; Indian corn, 62,228 qrs.; peas and beans, 42,663 qrs.; turnips, 539,803 qrs.; potatoes, 2,792,394 qrs.; other roots, 47,880 qrs.; hay, 225,093 tons. There were in 1860, 22,044 horses, 106,263 horned cattle, 168,038 sheep, and 47,932 swine. The wages of labour were—domestic, 2*l*. 10*s*. to 3*l*. per month, with board and lodging; prædial, 2*l*. 10*s*. to 4*l*. per month, with the same; and trades, 5*s*. to 8*s*. per day.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

The area was 2173, and the population in 1861, 80,857. In 1860, the revenue was 28,742*l*., and the expenditure 41,196*l*.; the public debt was 52,730*l*. The shipping entered was 1161 vessels, 82,376 tons; and cleared, 1153 vessels, 91,420 tons. In 1860, there were built 66 vessels, 8837 tons. The amount of imports was 230,054*l*., and of exports, 201,434*l*. The rates of duty in 1860 were:—

Dry goods, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Hardware and cutlery, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Leather, harness, ad valorem, 6½ per cent.
Ditto, sole, per lb., 0½*d*.
Ditto, ware, ad valorem, 10 per cent.

Spirits, brandy, per gal., 3*s*.
Ditto, gin, per gal., 2*s*. 8*d*.
Ditto, rum, per gal., 1*s*. 10*d*.
Tea, per lb., 2*d*.
Tobacco, manufactured, per lb., 3½*d*.

The rates of wages were, domestic and predial, 20*l.* per annum; trades, 50*l.* per annum.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

The area of the colony was 38,850, the population in 1857, 122,638. In 1860, the revenue was 133,608*l.*, and the expenditure, 120,728*l.*; the public debt amounted to 182,139*l.* The shipping entered was 1421 vessels, 207,271 tons; and cleared, 1296 vessels, 197,023 tons. There were built in 1860, 52 vessels, 2252 tons. The value of imports was 1,254,128*l.*, and of exports, 1,271,712*l.* The principal articles exported consisted of cod-fish, dry, 1,138,544 quintals; oil cod, unrefined, 4574 tuns; refined, 426 tuns; seal, 4865 tuns; and skins, seal, 344,202. The rates of customs' duties were as follow:—

Beer and cider, bottled, per doz., 9*d.*
Ditto, unbottled, in casks, per gal., 3*d.*
Biscuit and bread, per cwt., 3*d.*
Butter, per cwt., 3*s.*
Coffee, per lb., 1*d.*
Leather, manufactures of, ad valorem, 10 per cent.
Molasses, per gal., 2*d.*; 1859, 2½*d.*
Salt, per ton, 6*d.*
Spirits: brandy, gin, cordials, per gal., 4*s.*
Ditto, rum, per gal., 1*s.* 6*d.*
Sugar refined, per cwt., 12*s.*

Sugar, unrefined, per cwt., 7*s.* 6*d.*
Tea, per lb., 4*d.*
Tobacco, manufactured, 3*d.*
Wines, bottled, per gal., 4*s.*; 1859, 5*s.*
Ditto, unbottled, viz. port, madeira, hock, burgundy, and claret, per gal., 4*s.*
Ditto, sherry, per gal., 2*s.* 6*d.*, and 13½ per cent.
Ditto, other wines, per gal., 4*s.*; 1859, 2*s.*
Goods, ad valorem, 5 to 7½ per cent.
Goods imported into St. John's, 10 per cent.

The wages of labourers were—domestic, 25*l.* to 35*l.* per annum; predial, 25*l.* to 30*l.* per annum; and trades, 8*s.* to 10*s.* per diem.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

The area of the colony was estimated at 200,000 square miles. In 1860, the revenue was 53,327*l.*, and the expenditure 47,171*l.*; the public debt was 5200*l.* The shipping entered was 337 vessels, 31,551 tons; and cleared, 224 vessels, 31,418 tons. The imports amounted to 257,389*l.*, and the exports to 11,400*l.* The principal articles exported were:—Furs, 10,000*l.*; ice, 20 tons, 200*l.* value; lumber, 264,322 feet, 528*l.* value. The customs' duties imposed were:—

Ale and porter, in wood, ad valorem, per gal., 7*d.*
Ditto, in bottle, ad valorem, per doz., 1*s.* 8*d.*
Bacon and hams, ad valorem, per lb., 1*d.*
Blankets, ad valorem, per pair, 2*s.* 1*d.*
Butter, ad valorem, per lb., 2½*d.*
Clothing, ad valorem, 10 per cent.

Dry goods, ad valorem, 10 per cent.
Flour, ad valorem, per barrel, 3*s.* 1½*d.*
Live stock—horses, beef cattle, per head, 4*s.* 2*d.*
Spirits, per gallon, 6*s.* 3*d.*
Sugar, ad valorem, per lb., 1*d.*

The rates of wages were—domestic, 8*l.* per annum; predial, 12*l.*; and trades, 20*l.* per annum.

BERMUDA.

The area was 20 square miles; and the population in 1851, 10,982, of whom 6413 were coloured. In 1860, the public revenue amounted to 15,616*l.*, and the expenditure to 17,406*l.* There were entered in 1860, 187 vessels, 38,871 tons; and cleared, 180 vessels, 36,969 tons. The value of imports was 152,888*l.*, and of exports, 23,467*l.* The principal articles exported were—arrowroot, 40½ tons; onions, 269 tons; potatoes, 25,548 tons. The rates of duties were—malt liquors, 15*s.* per hogshead; spirits, 2*s.* 6*d.* per gallon; wine, 20 per cent.; unenumerated goods, 2½ per cent. The wages of labour were—domestic, 1*s.* 6*d.* per day; predial, 3*s.*; and trades, 6*s.*

HONDURAS.

The area of the colony was 17,000 square miles, and the population in 1861, 25,635. In 1860, the revenue was 32,575*l.*, and the expenditure 30,270*l.* The shipping entered was 104 vessels, 34,162 tons; and cleared, 115 vessels, 33,814 tons. The value of imports was 200,869*l.*, and of exports, 315,919*l.* The principal articles of export were—cochineal, 1919 sercons; cocoa-nuts, 329,054; logwood, 6845 tons; mahogany, 8,089,966 feet; sarsaparilla, 1056 bales; and specie, 2183*l.* The rates of duties were as follow:—

Cattle, per head, 4*s.*
Cigars, per 1000, 12*s.*
Coffee, per 100 lbs., 8*s.*
Lumber, per m. feet, 8*s.*
Malt liquors, per imp. gal., 6*d.*
Ditto, per doz. bot., 1*s.*
Cider, per imp. gal., 1*s.* 6*d.*
Ditto, per doz. bot., 1*s.*

Spirits and cordials, per gal., 2*s.*
Ditto, extra duty, per imp. gal., 1*s.*
Tea, per lb., 1*s.*
Tobacco, per 100 lbs., 12*s.*
Wine, per gal., 2*s.*
Duty on all articles, 1 per cent.
Duty on unrated articles, 2½ per cent.

The rates of wages were—domestic, 1*l.* 8*s.* per month; predial, 2*l.* per month; and trades, 6*l.* per month.

BAHAMAS.

The area of the colony was 3522 square miles, and the population in 1854 was 27,619. In 1860, the revenue was 37,018*l.*, and the expenditure, 36,876*l.*; the public debt was 22,635*l.* In the same year there were entered 410 vessels, 29,388 tons; and cleared, 417 vessels, 30,540 tons; and there were built 10 vessels, 169 tons. The value of imports was 234,029*l.*, and of exports 157,350*l.*; the principal articles of export being—coffee, 4259 cwts.; cotton, 4423 bales; salt, 226,584 bushels; sponge, 4196 cwts.; and sugar, 51,960 cwts. The rates of customs' duties upon the principal articles of import were as follow:—

Ale and porter, per doz., 1*s.*
Ditto, in wood, per gal., 4*d.*
Butter, per cwt., 12*s.*
Candles, tallow, per cwt., 5*s.*
Ditto, other sorts of, per cwt., 10*s.*
Coffee, per cwt., 4*s.*
Flour, wheat, per barrel, 3*s.*
Hulks and materials, ad valorem, 15*l.* per cent.
Lard, per cwt., 6*s.*
Lumber, per 1000 ft., 8*s.*
Meats, salted or cured, per cwt., 5*s.*
Molasses, per gal., 2*d.*
Rice, per cwt., 1*s.* 6*d.*
Spirits: brandy, per gal., 5*s.*
Ditto, rum, stronger than 18 per bubble, per gal., 3*s.*

Ditto, rum, 18 to 24 per bubble, per gal., 2*s.* 6*d.*
Ditto, rum, weaker than 24 per bubble, per gal., 2*s.*
Ditto, gin, whiskey, and other spirits, not enumerated, per gal., 2*s.* 6*d.*
Soap, per cwt., 4*s.*
Sugar, unrefined, per cwt., 5*s.*
Ditto, white clayed, per cwt., 8*s.*
Ditto, refined, per cwt., 10*s.*
Tea, per lb., 9*d.*
Tobacco, manufactured, per cwt., 14*s.*
Ditto, unmanufactured, per cwt., 5*s.*
Wines, per gal., 6*d.* and 20 per cent. ad valorem.
Unenumerated, ad valorem, 15*l.* per cent.
All articles not directly imported, 20*l.* per cent.

The rates of wages of labour were—domestic, male, 1*l.* 5*s.* to 2*l.* 10*s.* per month; females, 10*s.* to 1*l.*; predial, males, 1*s.* 3*d.* to 3*s.*; females, 9*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* per diem; trades, 4*s.* to 8*s.* per diem.

TURK'S ISLAND.

The population in 1861 was 4372. In 1860, the revenue was 9723*l.*, and the expenditure 9636; the public debt was 900*l.* The shipping entered was 401 vessels, 49,109 tons; and cleared, 434 vessels, 51,640 tons. The value of imports was 42,059*l.*, and of exports 33,911. The principal

article exported was 1,638,672 bushels of salt. The rates of duties were as follow:—

Import Duties.

Flour: wheat, per barrel, 3s. 9d.
Ditto, rye and corn meal, per barrel, 1s. 6d.
Lumber, m., 6s.
Ditto, shingles, m., 1s.
Ditto, shingles, cypress, m., 2s.
Meat, salted or cured, 100 lbs., 4s. 3d.
Spirits: rum, 24° proof, per gal., 3s.
Ditto, rum, for every degree under proof, 1d. less.

Ditto, rum, for every degree over proof, 1d.
Ditto, rum, extra, 1d.
Ditto, gin, 3s. 3d.
Ditto, whiskey, 3s. 3d.
Ditto, brandy, 4s.
Sugar, refined, 100 lbs., 8s. 4d.
Ditto, clayed, 100 lbs., 6s. 3d.
Ditto, unrefined, 100 lbs., 4s. 2d.
Export Duties.
Salt, per bushel, ½d.

JAMAICA.

The area was 6400 square miles; and the population 377,433; of whom 13,816 were white, 81,065 brown, and 346,374 black. In 1860, the revenue was 262,239*l.*, and the expenditure 255,239*l.*; the public debt was 738,111*l.* The shipping entered was 508 vessels, 91,049 tons; and cleared, 493 vessels, 86,886 tons. The value of imports was 1,202,855*l.*, and of exports 1,225,077*l.* The principal articles exported were—coffee, 6,145,362 lbs.; ginger, 841,734 lbs.; pimento, 6,850,548 lbs.; rum, 1,694,606 gallons; sugar, 599,737 cwts.; and wood, 4738 tons. The rates of customs' duties were as follow:—

Articles subject to Specific Duties.

Ale and beer, per tun, 4*l.* 7s.; additional duty (1858-9), 1*l.*
Butter, per cwt., 9s.
Candles, tallow, per 56 lbs., 2s. 6d.
Corn: flour, wheat, per barrel, 6s.; additional duty (1858-9), 2s.
Ditto, meal, not wheat, 1s.
Fish, dried, per cwt., 2s.; additional duty (1859), 6d.
Ditto, alewives and herrings, per barrel, 2s.
Pork, salted, per barrel of 200 lbs., 10s.
Rice, per cwt., 2s.
Soup, per box, 3s.
Spirits: brandy, per gal., 6s.; additional duty (1858-9), 1s.

Ditto, gin, per gal., 5s.; additional duty (1858-9), 1s.
Ditto, rum, produce of and imported from British possessions, per gal., 6s.
Ditto, whiskey, 5s.
Ditto, other kinds, and cordials or compounds, 8s.
Tobacco, leaf, per 100 lbs., 1*l.* 1s.
Ditto, manufactured, per lb., 6d.
Wines, per tun, 12*l.*; and ad valorem additional duty, 3*l.*

Articles subject to Ad Valorem Duties.

Goods, unenumerated, 12½ per cent.
British goods, ad valorem, 4, 10, and 12½ per cent.

VIRGIN ISLANDS (TORTOLO).

The area of the colony was 94 square miles, and the population in 1861, 6051. In 1860, the revenue was 2649*l.*, and the expenditure 2294*l.* The shipping entered was 1454 vessels, 4895 tons; and cleared, 1385 vessels, 4362 tons. The amount of public debt was 100*l.* The value of imports was 15,245*l.*, and of exports 17,022*l.* The principal articles exported were 1077 cattle, 12,800 lbs. of charcoal, 2167 live stock, 154 barrels of sugar. The import and export duties were as follow:—

Import Duty.

Flour, per barrel, 4s.
Corn meal, per barrel, 2s.

Export Duty.

Horses, mares, geldings, colts, fillies, asses, per head, 4s.

Bulls, cows, heifers, oxen, calves, per head, 2s.
Sheep, ewes, rams, lambs, per head, 6d.
Lime, per barrel, 2d.
Charcoal, per barrel, 2s.
Firewood, per cord, 9d.
Wrecked goods, ad valorem, 5s. per cent.

ST. CHRISTOPHER.

The area of this colony was 68 square miles, and the population in 1855 was 20,741. In 1860, the revenue was 20,691*l.*, and the expenditure

21,723*l*. The shipping entered was 696 vessels, 31,504 tons; and cleared, 695 vessels, 31,487 tons. The value of imports was 158,034*l*., and of exports 187,167*l*. The principal articles exported were 113,811 gallons of rum and spirits, 326,610 gallons of molasses, and 15,906,100 lbs. of sugar. The rates of customs' duties were as follow :—

Candles, tallow, per lb., $\frac{1}{4}$ *d*.
 Fish, dried, per 100 lbs., 1*s*. 0 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d*.
 Flour, per barrel of 196 lbs., 4*s*. 2*d*.
 Meal, per barrel of 196 lbs., 2*s*. 1*d*.
 Oats, per bushel, 3*d*.
 Lumber, W. Pine, per 1000 feet, 8*s*. 4*d*.
 Pork, salted, per 100 lbs., 4*s*. 2*d*.

Butter, per 100 lbs., 8*s*. 4*d*.
 Horses, per head, 1*l*. 10*d*.
 Wine, ad valorem, 15 per cent.
 Shingles, cypress, per 1000, 4*s*. 2*d*.
 Tobacco, unmanufactured, per 100 lbs., 10*s*.
 Goods, ad valorem, 8 per cent.

NEVIS.

The area of this colony was 20 square miles, and the population, in 1861, 9822. In 1860, the revenue was 5596*l*., and the expenditure 5129*l*. The public debt 4200*l*. The shipping entered was 217 vessels, 13207 tons; and cleared, 216 vessels, 13,052 tons. The value of imports was 34,255*l*., and of exports 40,666*l*. The principal articles exported were 650 puncheons of molasses; 124 $\frac{1}{2}$ puncheons of rum; 1244 hogsheads, 485 tierces, and 5291 barrels of sugar.

ANTIGUA.

The area was 47 square miles, and the population, in 1861, 37,125. In 1860, the revenue was 40,863*l*., the expenditure 41607*l*. The public debt 43,259*l*. The shipping entered was 585 vessels, 35,430 tons; and cleared, 591 vessels, 35,313 tons. The value of imports was 255,792*l*., and of exports 254,002*l*. The principal articles exported were 5572 puncheons of molasses; 130 hogsheads, 619 puncheons of rum; 1,1091 hogsheads, 1300 tierces, and 4630 barrels of sugar. The rates of customs' duties were as follow :—

Beef and pork, per barrel, 16*s*. 8*d*.
 Butter, per lb., 1*d*.
 Candles, tallow, per lb., 1*d*.
 Fish, dried, per quintal, 1*s*.
 Ditto, pickle-l, per barrel, 2*s*.
 Flour, per barrel, 5*s*.
 Mules, per head, 1*l*.
 Meal or other flour, not wheat, per barrel, 2*s*.
 Pease, beans, barley, oats, and corn, per bushel, 3*d*.
 Rice, per cwt., 2*s*.
 Soap, per lb., $\frac{1}{4}$ *d*.

Spirits : brandy, per gal., 2*s*. 6*d*.
 Ditto, gin, and all others not sweetened, per gal., 2*s*.
 Tobacco, unmanufactured, per lb., 3*d*.
 Wine, ad valorem, 15 per cent.
 Wood, P. Pine, per m. feet, 12*s*. 6*d*.
 Ditto, W. Pine, per m. feet, 8*s*. 4*d*.
 Ditto, cypress shingles, per m. feet, 6*s*. 3*d*.
 Ditto, staves, per m. feet, 10*s*. 5*d*.
 Non-enumerated goods, ad valorem, 5 per cent.
 Extra duty on total amount of duties, 20 per cent.

MONTSERRAT.

The area of the colony was 47 square miles, and the population, in 1859, was 7053. In 1860, the revenue was 3333*l*., and the expenditure 3243*l*. The public debt was 6574*l*. There were entered 203 vessels, 7825 tons; and cleared 194 vessels, 7450 tons. The imports amounted to 20,060*l*., and the exports to 17,043*l*. The principal articles exported were 195 puncheons of molasses, 20 puncheons of rum, and 423 hogsheads, 337 tierces, and 956 $\frac{1}{2}$ barrels of sugar. The rates of duties were as follow :—

Wheaten flour, per barrel of 126 lbs., 2*l*.
 Ditto, bread, per lb., 4*d*.
 Horned cattle, each, 4*l*. to 10*l*.
 Horses, each, 6*l*. to 20*l*.
 Sheep, each, 12*s*.

Goats, each, 8*s*.
 Swine, each, 12*s*.
 Milk, per quart, 2*d*.
 Butter : fresh, per lb., 1*s*. 4*d*.
 Ditto, salt, per lb., 2*s*.

Cheese, per lb., 1s. 4d.
 Beef, per lb., 5½d.
 Mutton, per lb., 5½d.
 Pork, per lb., 5½d.
 Rice, per lb., 4d.
 Coffee, per lb., 1s.
 Tea, per lb., 5s. 4d.

Sugar, per lb., 4d.
 Salt, per barrel, 5s.
 Wine, per dozen, 1l. to 2l.
 Brandy, per gal., per bottle, 4s.
 Beer, per dozen, 1s.
 Tobacco, per lb., 1s. 4d.

DOMINICA.

The area of this colony was 291 square miles, and the population, in 1861, 25,065l. In 1860, the revenue was 14,462l., and the expenditure 13,752l. The public debt 5405l. The shipping entered was 330 vessels, 9394 tons; and cleared 335 vessels, 9383 tons. The value of imports was 62,941l., of exports 80,458l. The principal articles exported were 97,489 lbs. of cocoa, 96,249 gallons of rum, 7,151,885 lbs. sugar. The customs' duties were as follow:—

Ale, malt, &c., per gal., 5d.
 Butter, per cwt., 7s. 6d.
 Fish, dried, per cwt., 1s. 6d.
 Ditto, pickled, per barrel, 8s.
 Flour, wheat, per barrel of 196 lbs., 4s. 2d.
 Hardware, ad valorem, 10 per cent.
 Linens and cottons, 10 per cent.
 Ditto, cotton handkerchiefs, per piece, 2s. 3d.
 Oil, olive, per gal., 9d.
 Silks, except Corahs and Bandannahs, ad valorem, 15 per cent.

Ditto, Corahs and Bandannahs, per piece, 2s.; (1860), 2s. 3d.
 Ditto, Madras and Ventrappollam handkerchiefs, per piece, 2s. 3d.
 Tobacco, raw, 100 lb., 8s. 4d.
 Wines, ad valorem, 20 per cent.
 Wood: staves and hoops, per m. feet, 8s. 4d.
 Ditto, W. P. lumber, per m. feet, 7s. 6d.
 Ditto, shingles, under 14 in., per m. feet, 2s.
 Ditto, shingles, 14 and under 16 inches, per m. feet, 3s. 6d.
 Ditto, shingles, above 16 per m. feet, 5s.

ST. LUCIA.

The area of this colony was 300 square miles, and the population, in 1860, was 27,141. In 1860, the revenue was 13,603l., the expenditure 12,151l., the public debt 18,000l. The shipping entered was 195 vessels, 12,363 tons; and cleared 201 vessels, 12,849 tons. The value of imports was 97,900l., and of exports 105,947l. The principal articles exported were 212,482 lbs. of cocoa, 122,400 gallons of molasses, 29,221 gallons of rum, and 7,958,165 lbs. of sugar. The rates of duties were as follow:—

Butter, ad valorem, 5 per cent.
 Cottons and linens, ad valorem, 5 per cent.
 Fish, dried cod, per cwt., 1s.

Flour, wheat, per barrel, 2s.
 Tobacco, raw, per lb., 2d.
 Wines, all kinds, ad valorem, 10 per cent.

ST. VINCENT.

The area was 131 square miles, and the population, in 1861, 31,755. In 1860, the revenue was 20,231l., and the expenditure 21,697l. There were entered 349 vessels, 19,173 tons; and cleared 353 vessels, 20,123 tons. The value of imports was 150,343l., and of exports 172,265l. The principal articles of export were 6493 barrels, 11,020 tons, and 738 packages of arrowroot; 1888 barrels of flour; 621 puncheons of molasses; 275 hogsheads, 1468 tons, 69 casks, and 8 cases of rum; 8990 hogsheads, 94 tierces, and 273 barrels of sugar. The rates of duties were as follow:—

Ale, beer, cider, and perry, per tun, 1l. 5s.; per dozen, 4d.
 Butter, per cwt., 6s.
 Candles, tallow, per cwt., 1s. 6d.
 Cordage, per cwt., 1s. 6d.
 Fish, dried or salted, per cwt., 1s.
 Flour, per barrel, 4s.
 Meal, corn, per barrel, 1s. 3d.; 30th July, 1860, 1s.

Pork and beef, salted and cured, per barrel, not exceeding 200 lbs., 8s. 4d.
 Rice, per cwt., 1s.
 Spirits: brandy, per gal., 2s.
 Ditto, gin, per gal., 2s.
 Wood: W. and spruce pine, per m. feet, 4s.
 Ditto, shingles, cypress, per m. feet, 2s.
 Wines, ad valorem, 12 per cent.
 Goods, ad valorem, 5 per cent.

BARBADOES.

The area was 166 square miles, and the population, in 1861, 152,227; of whom 16,594 were whites, 36,128 coloured, and 100,005 blacks. In 1860, the revenue was 94,753*l.*, the expenditure 110,873*l.*, the public debt 292*l.* The shipping entered—1081 vessels, 123,910 tons; and cleared—1073 vessels, 119,394 tons. The value of imports was 941,761*l.*, and of exports 984,294*l.* The principal articles exported were 47,866 quintals of dried fish, 34,812 barrels of flour, 826 packages of linen, 1,655,833 lbs. of salted meat, 18,641 puncheons of molasses, 1,871,267 lbs. of rice, 249 puncheons of rum, and 43,365 hogsheads of sugar. The rates of duties were as follow :—

Butter, per 100 lbs., 6*s.* 3*d.*
Candles, tallow, per 100 lbs., 4*s.* 2*d.*
Corn and grain, unground, per bushel, 2½*d.*
Flour, wheat, per barrel of 196 lbs., 3*s.* 6*d.*
Fish : salmon, dried, pickled, or smoked, per 100 lbs., 6*d.*
Ditto, other kinds, pickled, per barrel, 6*d.*
Ditto, dried or salted, per cwt., 2*d.*
Hardware, ad valorem, 3 per cent.
Horses, per head, 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*
Linen and cottons, ad valorem, 3 per cent.

Lumber, 1000 sup. feet, 2*s.* 1*d.*
Malt liquors, in wood, 64 gal. cask, 4*s.* 2*d.*
Ditto, in bottle, per dozen, 3*d.*
Meats, salted and cured, per 100 lbs., 4*s.* 2*d.*
Meal, corn, per barrel, of 196 lbs., 1*s.*
Rice, per 100 lbs., 5*d.*
Spirits : brandy, per gal., 3*s.* 4*d.*
Ditto, rum, per gal., 2*s.* 8*d.*
Tobacco, per lb., 2½*d.*
Wines, ad valorem, 15 per cent.

GRENADA.

The area of this colony was 133 square miles, and the population, in 1861, was 31,900. In 1860, the revenue was 17,353*l.*, the expenditure 19,719*l.*, and the public debt 9400*l.* The shipping entered was 372 vessels, 20,867 tons; and cleared 434 vessels, 196,20 tons. The amount of imports was 126,207*l.*, and of exports 125,502*l.* The principal articles exported were 9145 cwts. of cocoa, 911 cwts. of cotton, 171,090 gallons of rum, 102,534 cwts. of sugar. The customs' duties were as follow :—

Butter, per 100 lbs., 8*s.*
Candles, tallow, per 100 lbs., 5*s.*
Flour, per barrel, 4*s.*
Fish, dried, per 100 lbs., 1*s.*

Lumber : spruce and white pine, per m. feet, 5*s.*
Unenumerated goods, ad valorem, 5 per cent.

TOBAGO.

The area was 97 square miles, and the population, in 1861, was 15,410. In 1860, the revenue was 2758*l.*, the expenditure 9028*l.*, the public debt 6877*l.* The shipping entered was 108 vessels, 6592 tons; and cleared 106 vessels, 6429 tons. The value of imports was 51,785*l.*, and of exports 67,124*l.* The principal articles exported were 1207 cwts. of molasses, 59,052 cwts. of sugar, and 109,047 gallons of rum. The rates of customs' duty were as follow :—

Ale and beer, per hhd., 10*s.* ; per dozen, 6*d.*
Beef and pork, salted, per 200 lbs., 6*s.*
Butter, per lb., 1*d.*
Candles, tallow, per lb., 1*d.*
Coals, per hhd., 1*s.* 6*d.* ; per tun, 2*s.*
Copper, manufactures of, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Fish, dried, per quintal, 1*s.*

Flour, wheat, per barrel, 3*s.*
Hardware and ironmongery, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Linen, cottons, and woollens, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Lumber, W. pine, per m. feet, 8*s.*
Rice, per 100 lbs., 2*s.*
Tobacco, unmanufactured, per lb., 2*d.*

TRINIDAD.

The area of this colony was 2012 square miles, and the population, in 1861, 84,438. In 1860, the revenue was 174,861*l.*; the expenditure

187,221*l.*, and the public debt 226,173*l.* The shipping entered was 847 vessels, 92,486 tons; and cleared 800 vessels, 91,184 tons. The value of imports was 829,304*l.*, and of exports 714,605*l.* The principal articles exported were 4,135,921 lbs. of cocoa, 6036 hogsheads, 82 puncheons, and 172 barrels of molasses; 1317 gallons, 1353 puncheons of rum, and 30,592 hogsheads, 4969 tierces, and 2709 barrels of sugar. The customs' duties were as follow:—

Cottons, linens, woollens, &c., ad valorem, 5 per cent.	Oil, olive, per gal., 9 <i>d.</i>
Fish, dried and salted, per 100 lbs., 1 <i>s.</i>	Oil-cake, ad valorem, 3½ per cent.
Flour, per barrel, 5 <i>s.</i>	Rice, per 100 lbs., 2 <i>s.</i>
Hardware: ironmongery, ad valorem, 5 per cent.	Silks, ribbons, &c. ad valorem, 10 per cent.
Ditto, machinery, ad valorem, 3½ per cent.	Spirits: brandy, per gal., 4 <i>s.</i> ; (1860) 5 <i>s.</i>
Leather: boots and shoes, ad valorem, 5 per cent.	Ditto, gin, per gal., 4 <i>s.</i> ; (1860) 5 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, saddlery, ad valorem, 5 per cent.	Ditto, liqueurs, per gal., 4 <i>s.</i> (1860) 5 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, unmanufactured, ad valorem, 5 per cent.	Sugar, refined, per 100 lbs., 10 <i>s.</i>
Live stock, cattle, per head, 2 <i>s.</i> 1 <i>d.</i>	Tobacco, unmanufactured, per lb., 4½ <i>d.</i>
Ditto, horses, per head, 2 <i>l.</i>	Wines: sherry, port, Madeira, per gal., 1 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, mules, per head, 1 <i>l.</i>	Ditto, Teneriffe, Malaga, Muscat, and Canary, per gal., 8 <i>d.</i>
Malt liquors, per hhd., 10 <i>s.</i> ; per dozen qts. 6 <i>d.</i>	Ditto, Vin de Côte, per gal., 2 <i>d.</i>
Meat: beef, pickled, per 100 lbs., 4 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>	Ditto, in bottle, excepting Muscat, per doz., 6 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, hams, per 100 lbs., 4 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>	Ditto, Muscat, per dozen, 4 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, pork, per 100 lbs., 4 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>	Wood: lumber, W. and P. pine, per m. feet, 6 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i>
	Ditto, hoops, ad valorem, 3½ per cent.
	Ditto, shingles, per m., 1 <i>s.</i>
	Ditto, staves, per m., 10 <i>s.</i>

BRITISH GUIANA.

The area was 76,000 square miles, and the population in 1851 was 127,695. In 1860, the revenue was 279,952*l.*, and the expenditure, 314,858*l.*, and the public debt, 496,100*l.* There were entered 702 vessels, 170,732 tons; and cleared 689 vessels, 136,572 tons. The amount of imports was 1,145,959*l.*, and of exports, 1,513,452*l.* The principal articles exported were 62,198 hogsheads of sugar, 27,299 puncheons of rum, and 2814 casks of molasses. The rates of duties were as follow:—

Beef, pickled, per barrel of 200 lbs., 3 dols.	Flour, wheat, per barrel of 196 lbs., 1 dol.
Bricks, per 1000, 30 cents.	Lumber, per 1000 feet, 2 dols.
Butter, per lb., 2 cents.	Malt liquor in wood, per hogshead, 5 dols.
Coals, per hogshead, 24 cents.	Ditto, in bottles, per doz. quarts, 24 cents.
Ditto, loose, per ton, 36 cents.	Rice, per 100 lbs., 25 cents.
Corn, per bushel, 5 cents.	Shooks, per package, 8 cents.
Fish, dried, per 112 lbs., 50 cents.	Spirits, all kinds, per gal., 2 dols.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

The area was 13,000 square miles, and the population in 1860, 566. In 1860, the revenue was 7605*l.*, and the expenditure 5427*l.* There were entered 45 vessels, 16,042 tons; and cleared, 47 vessels, 15,909 tons. The value of imports was 6982*l.*, and of exports, 5910*l.*

NEW SOUTH WALES.

The area was 478,861 square miles, and the population in 1861, 348,546. In 1860, the revenue was 1,880,508*l.*, and the expenditure, 2,047,955*l.*; the public debt, 3,830,230*l.* The shipping entered in 1860 was 1424 vessels, 427,835 tons; and cleared 1438 vessels, 431,484 tons. The value of imports was 7,519,285*l.*, and of exports, 5,072,020*l.* The exports included 14,951,366 lbs. of wool, 2,061,813 feet of timber, 1,640,520 lbs. of tea. The rates of customs' duties were as follow:—

Beer, in bottles, per gal., 2*d*.
 Ditto, in wood, per gal., 1*d*.
 Chicory, per lb., 2*d*.
 Opium, per lb., 10*s*.
 Spirits, brandy, per gal., 10*s*.
 Ditto, Rum, per gal., 7*s*.
 Ditto, Geneva, per gal., 10*s*.

Sugar, raw, per cwt., 5*s*.
 Ditto, refined, per cwt., 6*s*. 8*d*.
 Tea, per lb., 3*d*.
 Wine, containing more than 25 per cent. of alcohol, per gal., 10*s*.
 Ditto, not containing more than 25 per cent. of alcohol, per gal., 2*s*.

In 1860, there were issued 1,846,352*l*. in gold coin and bullion. In New South Wales there were 251,497 horses, 2,408,586 horned cattle, 6,119,163 sheep, and 180,662 swine.

VICTORIA.

The area was 86,944 square miles, and the population in 1861, 540,322. In 1860, the revenue was 3,006,326*l*., the expenditure, 2,587,637*l*., and the public debt, 5,118,100*l*.. There were entered 1814 vessels, 581,642 tons; and cleared, 1841 vessels, 599,137 tons. The value of imports was 15,093,730*l*., and of exports, including gold, 12,962,704*l*.. The exports included 2,156,661 oz. gold, value, 8,624,860*l*., and 24,273,910 lbs. of wool. The customs' duties were as follow:—

Import Duty.

Spirits and strong waters of any strength not exceeding the strength by Sykes' hydrometer, and so on in proportion for any greater or less strength than proof, per gal., 10*s*.
 Spirits, cordials, liqueurs, or strong waters, sweetened or mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength cannot be ascertained by Sykes' hydrometer, per gal., 10*s*.

Wines, per gal., 2*s*.

Beer and cider, per gal., 6*d*.
 Tobacco, per lb., 2*s*.
 Snuff, per lb., 2*s*.
 Cigars, per lb., 3*s*.
 Tea, per lb., 6*d*.
 Coffee and chicory, per lb., 2*d*.
 Sugar, per cwt., 6*s*.
 Opium, per lb., 10*s*.
 (All other articles are free of duty.)

Export Duty.

Gold, per oz., 2*s*. 6*d*.

In 1860, there were brought from the gold fields by Government escort, 2,008,843 oz. gold. The average price of land sold per acre, was 1*l*. 6*s*. 11*d*. There were in the colony, 76,536 horses, 716,332 horned cattle, 5,780,896 sheep, and 61,259 pigs.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

The area was 300,000, and the population in 1861, 126,830. In 1860, the revenue was 504,045*l*., the expenditure, 492,656*l*., and the public debt, 870,100*l*.. There were entered 357 vessels, 105,269 tons; and cleared, 370 vessels, 112,789 tons. The value of imports was 1,639,592*l*., and of exports, 1,783,716*l*.. The exports included 13,212,438 lbs. of wool. The rates of duties were as follow:—

Beer, porter, ale, perry, and cider, per gal., 6*d*.
 Spirits, per gal., 10*s*.
 Sugar, muscovado, per cwt., 3*s*.

Tea, per lb., 2*d*.
 Tobacco, manufactured, per lb., 1*s*. 4*d*.
 Wine, per gal., 2*s*.
 Goode, ad valorem, free.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

The area was 45,000 square miles, and the population in 1861, 15,593. In 1860, the revenue was 69,860*l*., and the expenditure, 61,745*l*.; the public debt, 1750*l*.. There were entered in the year, 109 vessels, 54,564 tons; and cleared, 126 vessels, 62,615 tons. The value of imports was 169,075*l*., and of exports, 89,247*l*.. The customs' duties were as follow:—

Beer, per gal., 4*d*.
 Tea, per lb., 2*d*.
 Tobacco, manufactured, per lb., 1*s*. 9*d*.
 Ditto, unmanufactured, per lb., 1*s*.
 Sugar, refined and candy, per cwt., 4*s*.
 Ditto, moist and molasses, per cwt., 3*s*.

Spirits, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and so on in proportion, per gal., 12*s*.
 Wine, per gal., 2*s*.
 Goods, ad valorem, 7 per cent.

TASMANIA.

The area of this colony was 22,629, and the population in 1861, 89,977. In 1860, the revenue was 413,915*l.*, and the expenditure, 403,194*l.* There were entered of shipping, 806 vessels, 116,172 tons; and cleared, 818 vessels, 118,243 tons. The value of imports was 1,068,411*l.*, and of exports, 962,170*l.* The exports included 1,956,125 lbs. of wool, 546,590 bushels of oats, and 156,047 bushels of wheat. The rates of customs' duties in force were as follow:—

Coffee, per lb., 1 <i>½d.</i>	Spirits, whiskey, per gal., 12 <i>s.</i>
Hope, per lb., 2 <i>d.</i>	Sugar, raw, per cwt., 3 <i>s.</i>
Malt liquor, per doz. pints, 9 <i>d.</i>	Ditto, refined, per cwt., 6 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, per doz. quarts, 1 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>	Tea, per lb., 3 <i>d.</i>
Ditto, per gal., 3 <i>d.</i>	Tobacco, per lb., 2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>
Spirits, brandy, per gal., 12 <i>s.</i>	Ditto, cigars, per lb., 3 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, Geneva, per gal., 12 <i>s.</i>	Wine, per doz. pints, 3 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, gin, per gal., 12 <i>s.</i>	Ditto, per doz. quarts, 6 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, rum, per gal., 10 <i>s.</i>	Ditto, per gal., 2 <i>s.</i>

The average price of land in the country was 1*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.*, and in towns 6*l.* 17*s.* 0*½d.* per acre. There were in the colony, 21,034 horses, 83,360 cattle, 1,700,930 sheep, 31,290 swine.

NEW ZEALAND.

The area was 95,000 square miles, and the population in 1860, 83,919, the aboriginal population numbering 56,049. In 1860, the revenue was 464,738*l.* There were entered 398 vessels, 140,276 tons; and cleared, 398 vessels, 140,293 tons. The value of imports was 1,548,333*l.*, and of exports, 588,953*l.* The exports included 6,665,880 lbs. of wool, 4538 oz. of gold and gold dust, and 1046 lbs. Mauri gum. In the possession of Europeans there were only 141,007 acres of land under crop, and 235,561 acres fenced.

QUEENSLAND.

The area was 559,000, and the population in 1861, was 30,115. In 1860, the revenue was 178,589*l.*, and the expenditure, 180,103*l.* There were entered in the year, 210 vessels, 45,736 tons; and cleared, 183 vessels, 39,503 tons. The value of imports was 742,023*l.*, and of exports, 523,476*l.* The customs' duties in force were as follow:—

Spirits, brandy and gin, per gal., 10 <i>s.</i>	Tea, per lb., 3 <i>d.</i>
Ditto, whiskey, rum, and all other spirits, per gal., 7 <i>s.</i>	Tobacco and snuff, per lb., 2 <i>s.</i>
Sugar, refined and candy, per cwt., 6 <i>s.</i> 8 <i>d.</i>	Wine, containing more than 25 per cent. of alcohol, per gal., 10 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, unrefined, per cwt., 5 <i>s.</i>	Ditto, not containing more than 25 per cent. of alcohol, per gal., 2 <i>s.</i>
Treacle and molasses, per cwt., 3 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i>	

In Queensland there were 23,504 horses, 432,890 cattle, 3,449,350 sheep, and 7147 pigs.

HONG KONG.

The area was 29.14 square miles, and the population in 1860, 94,917. In 1860, the revenue was 94,183*l.*, and the expenditure, 72,391*l.* There were entered 1534 vessels, 875,199 tons; and cleared, 1354 vessels, 680,446 tons. In 1860, there were imported 27,580 chests of opium. In 1859, there were imported 3,881,986*l.* of treasure, and of this there were exported to Shanghai 2,199,812*l.*, and to other places 1,895,812*l.*

LABUAN.

The area was 50 square miles, and the population 2442, of whom 2409 were coloured. In 1860, the revenue was 8000*l.*, and the expenditure 8409*l.* There were entered 27 vessels, 6769 tons; and cleared 20 vessels, 4395 tons. The value of imports was 37,842*l.*, and of exports 12,603*l.* The principal articles of exports were bees' wax, birds' nests, camphor, sago, pepper.

CEYLON.

The area was 24,700 square miles, and the population, in 1861, 1,919,487. In 1860, the revenue was 767,101*l.*, and the expenditure 705,440*l.* There were entered 3116 vessels, and 382,550 tons; and cleared, 3116 vessels, 407,099 tons. The value of imports was 3,551,239*l.*, and of exports 2,550,546*l.* The principal articles exported were areca-nuts, cinnamon, coffee, cocoanut-oil, spirits.

MAURITIUS.

The area was 708 square miles, and the population, in 1861, 322,517. In 1860, the revenue was 553,419*l.*, and the expenditure 500,854*l.* There were entered 776 vessels, 308,018 tons; and cleared, 752 vessels, 295,064 tons. The value of imports was 2,769,209*l.*, and of exports 2,259,640*l.* The principal articles of exports were copper, rum, and sugar. The rates of customs' duties were as follow:—

Import Duties.

Apparel (according to material), ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Beer and ale of all sorts, per hogshead, 15*s.*
Ditto, per doz., 9*d.*
Coffee, per cwt., 4*s.*
Copper, sheets or nails, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Cordial and liqueurs, per gal., 6*s.*
Cotton manufactures, plain, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Ditto, coloured, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Haberdashery, mercery, and millinery, ad valorem, 6 per cent.

Hardware and cutlery, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Leather, boots and shoes, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Spirits, brandy, per gal., 6*s.*
Ditto, Geneva, per gal., 6*s.*
Tobacco, unmanufactured, per lb., 3*d.*
Ditto, manufactured, per lb., 4*d.*
Ditto, cigars, per lb., 1*s.*
Wine, per cask, 16*s.*
Ditto, per doz., 2*s.*
Wood, boards and planks, 6 per cent.
Woollen, manufactures, cloth, 6 per cent.

Export Duties.

Sugar, per 100 lbs., net French weight, 3*d.*

NATAL.

The area of the colony was 18,000 square miles, and the population, in 1860, was 157,583. In 1860, the revenue was 86,859*l.*, and the expenditure 80,385*l.* There were entered 71 vessels, 15,464 tons; and cleared, 64 vessels, 14,164 tons. The value of imports was 354,987*l.*, and of exports 139,698*l.* The principal articles of exports were arrowroot, ivory, sugar (unrefined), and wool. The customs' duties were as follow:—

Ale and beer, bottled, per gal., 3*d.*
Ditto, in wood, 2*d.*
Apparel, slops, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Gunpowder, per lb., 3*d.*
Beads, per lb., 3*d.*
Coffee, per cwt., 10*s.*
Cotton manufactures, plain, ad valorem, 6 per cent.

Cotton manufactures, printed, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Ditto, blankets, ad valorem, 6 per cent.; 1859-60, ad valorem, 15 per cent.
Haberdashery and millinery, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Hardware and cutlery, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Ironmongery, ad valorem, 6 per cent.
Leather manufactures, ad valorem, 6 per cent.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

The area was 104,931 square miles, and the population 267,096. In 1860, the revenue was 742,771*l.*, the expenditure 729,690*l.*, and the public debt 368,400*l.* There were entered 1014 vessels, 329,934 tons; and cleared, 1042 vessels, 335,358 tons. The value of imports was 2,665,902*l.*,

and of exports 2,080,398*l*. The principal articles of export were 23,219,000 lbs. of wool, 531,787 galls. of wine, 550,612 goat skins, and 934,076 sheep skins, 278,096 lbs. alloo, 37,692 ox and cow hides, 63,000 lbs. of ivory. The customs' rates of duties were as follow :—

Agricultural implements, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.	Linen manufactures, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Apothecary's wares, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.	Musical instruments, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Apparel and slops, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.	Oilmen's stores, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Beer and ale, bottled, per gal., 3 <i>d</i> .	Rice, per cwt., 2 <i>s</i> .
Cabinet and upholstery ware, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.	Saddlery and harness, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Coffee, per cwt., 12 <i>s</i> . 6 <i>d</i> .	Spirits, brandy, per gal., 3 <i>s</i> .
Cotton manufactures, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.	Ditto, gin, per gal., 3 <i>s</i> .
Flour, per barrel, 3 <i>s</i> .	Ditto, rum, per gal., 3 <i>s</i> .
Gunpowder, per lb., 6 <i>d</i> .	Stationery, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.
Haberdashery and millinery, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.	Sugar, raw, per cwt., 3 <i>s</i> . 6 <i>d</i> .
Hardware, cutlery, and ironmongery, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.	Ditto, refined, per cwt., 5 <i>s</i> .
Jewellery, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.	Tea, per lb., 6 <i>d</i> .
Leather manufactures, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.	Tobacco, cigars, per 1000, 12 <i>s</i> . 6 <i>d</i> .
	Ditto, manufactured, per cwt., 2 <i>l</i> . 16 <i>s</i> .
	Ditto, unmanufactured, per cwt., 1 <i>l</i> . 18 <i>s</i> .
	Wood, deals, per cubic foot, 2 <i>d</i> .
	Woollen manufactures, ad valorem, 7½ per cent.

In the year 1858, there were, at the Cape, 4,863,299 sheep woolled, and 1,648,732 sheep (African), and 1,270,809 goats.

ST. HELENA.

The area was 47 square miles, and the population, in 1861, was 6860. In 1860, the revenue was 23,168*l*., and the expenditure 22,294*l*. There were entered 259 vessels, 131,244 tons; and cleared, 55 vessels, 19,047 tons. The value of imports was 124,037*l*., and of exports 10,896*l*. The rates of customs' duties were as follows :—

Beer, per doz. quart bottles, 6 <i>d</i> .	Spirits, per gal., 10 <i>s</i> .
Ditto, per hogshead, 10 <i>s</i> .	Wines, per gal., 1 <i>s</i> . 9 <i>d</i> .

GOLD COAST.

The area of this colony was 6000 square miles, and the population 151,346. In 1860, the revenue was 7948*l*.; and the expenditure 9558*l*. There were entered 93 vessels, 23,359 tons; and cleared, 93 vessels, 25,359 tons. The value of imports was 112,454*l*., and of exports 110,457*l*. The principal articles exported were 19,783 oz. of gold dust, 12,425 lbs. of ivory, and 266,036 galls. palm oil. The customs' duties consisted of 2 per cent. on all goods imported.

SIERRA LEONE.

The area was 300 square miles, and the population, in 1860, 41,624. In 1860, the revenue was 33,734*l*., and the expenditure 31,136*l*. There were entered 383 vessels, 51,321 tons; and cleared, 390 vessels, 50,265 tons. The value of imports was 172,726*l*., and of exports 304,394*l*. The principal articles of export were 70,286 bushels of beniseed, 348 tons camwood, 6695 lbs. ginger, 2036 oz. gold; 471,500 bushels of ground nuts, 737,124 lbs. hides, 23,710 lbs. ivory, 630,706 galls. palm oil, 82,448 galls. palm nuts, 529,295 lbs. tobacco unmanufactured. The customs' duties were as follow :—

Ale and beer, per doz., 1 <i>s</i> .	Hardware, ad valorem, 4 per cent.
Ditto, per gal., 6 <i>d</i> .	Rum, per gal., 1 <i>s</i> .
Apparel, ad valorem, 4 per cent.	Sugar, refined, per cwt., 10 <i>s</i> .
Cotton goods, ad valorem, 4 per cent.	Ditto, crushed, per cwt., 8 <i>s</i> . 3 <i>d</i> .
Gunpowder, per barrel, 9 <i>d</i> .	Ditto, muscavado, per cwt., 6 <i>s</i> .
Haberdashery, ad valorem, 4 per cent.	Tobacco, unmanufactured, per lb., 1½ <i>d</i> .

GAMBIA.

The population of this colony, in 1851, was 6939. In 1860, the revenue was 14,154*l.*, and the expenditure, 15,274*l.* There were entered 196 vessels, 25,296 tons; and cleared, 200 vessels, 24,111 tons. The value of imports was 73,118*l.*, and of exports 109,137*l.* The principal articles of exports were 9951 tons ground nuts, 44,916 hides, 55½ tons wax (clean). The customs' duties were as follow:—

On all goods except produce of West Africa, ad valorem, 4 per cent.	Additional duty on all spirituous liquors, except wine and rum, per gal., 1 <i>s.</i>
Additional duty on wines, spirits, liqueurs, per gal., 6 <i>d.</i>	Additional duty on tobacco, per lb., ¼ <i>d.</i>
	Ditto, ditto, per lb., ¼ <i>d.</i>

GIBRALTAR.

The area was one two-thirds square miles, and the population, in 1860, 17,647. In 1860, the revenue was 33,512*l.*, and the expenditure 29,035*l.* There were entered 4482 vessels, 986,917 tons; and cleared, 4432 vessels, 976,864 tons.

MALTA.

The area, including Gozzo, was 115 square miles, and the population, in 1860, 147,683. In 1860, the revenue was 145,944*l.*, and the expenditure 148,303*l.* The public debt was 146,429*l.* There were entered 3187 vessels, 410,910 tons; and cleared, 3226 vessels, 416,477 tons. The value of imports was 2,981,947*l.*, and of exports 2,300,821*l.* The principal articles exported were grains, oil, pulse, spirits, and wine. The customs' duties were as follows:—

Cattle, per head, 10 <i>s.</i>	Pulse, carrob beans and cotton seeds, per cantara, 6 <i>d.</i>
Grain, wheat, per salme, 10 <i>s.</i>	Spirits and spirituous liquors, per barili, 1 <i>l.</i> 2 <i>s.</i>
Ditto, barley, per salme, 4 <i>s.</i>	Wines exceeding 15 <i>l.</i> in value per pipa, or 11
Oil, per cassia, 6 <i>d.</i>	Maltese barrels, per barili, 11 <i>s.</i>
Pulse, per salme, 2 <i>s.</i>	Ditto, other wines, per barili, 2 <i>s.</i>

IONIAN ISLANDS.

The united area of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, and Paxo was 1041 square miles, and the population, in 1860, 232,426. In 1860, the revenue was 140,855*l.*, and the expenditure 151,187*l.*; the public debt amounted to 217,226*l.* There were entered in that year 3621 vessels, 517,320 tons; and cleared, 3,703 vessels, 525,840 tons. The value of imports was 1,306,303*l.*, and of exports 649,057*l.* The principal articles exported were 25,189,982 lbs. currants, 1,528,169 lbs. soap, and 417,204 lbs. hides. The customs' duties were as follow:—

Import Duties.

Cattle, small, per head, under privileged flags, 2 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 2 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>	under privileged flags, 9 <i>s.</i> 9 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 10 <i>s.</i> 10 <i>d.</i>
Ditto, oxen, per head, under privileged flags, 4 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 4 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i>	Rice, per 100 lbs., under privileged flags, 1 <i>s.</i> 10 <i>d.</i> , all other flags, 2 <i>s.</i>
Coffee, per 100 lbs., under privileged flags, 4 <i>s.</i> 9 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 5 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i>	Rum, per gal., under privileged flags, 11 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 1 <i>s.</i>
Cotton manufactures, ad valorem, under privileged flags, 7 per cent., all other flags, 8 per cent.	Sugar, white, crushed, per 100 lbs., under privileged flags, 4 <i>s.</i> 11 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 5 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>
Fish, codfish, per 100 lbs., under privileged flags, 1 <i>s.</i> 10 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 2 <i>s.</i>	Tobacco, raw, per lb., under privileged flags, 2 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 3 <i>d.</i>
Grain, wheat, per bushel, under privileged flags, 5 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 5 <i>d.</i>	Woollen manufactures, under privileged flags, 7 per cent.; all other flags, 8 per cent.
Ditto, Indian corn, per bushel, under privileged flags, 3 <i>d.</i> ; all other flags, 3 <i>d.</i>	<i>Export Duties.</i>
Hides, cured for sole leather, per 100 lbs.,	Oil, ad valorem, 18 per cent.
	Currants, ad valorem, 18 per cent.
	Wine (except that of the Cephalonia Company), ad valorem, 6 per cent.

GOLD FIELDS, VICTORIA.

Despatch of Governor Sir Henry Barkley, K.C.B., relative to the present Condition and Prospects of the Gold Fields in Victoria.

AFTER noticing the great improvements shown in Ballarat, Castlemaine, and Sandhurst, and the adjoining villages, the Governor proceeded as follows:—

The close of 1856 seems nevertheless to have been the culminating point of the series, and so considerable has the decline since become, that the three millions ounces reached in that year bid fair to be down to two millions by the end of the present. The more obvious causes of this decline have from time to time been adverted to in my despatches with the quarterly gold returns, but as neither the secession of the miners, the dry weather, nor over-speculation in bubble companies, seemed to me entirely to account for it, I omitted no opportunity during my recent tour of seeking for other explanation. The chief ground of miscalculation was, no doubt, that I reckoned in 1857 on a large and continuous accession to the mining population, to compensate for the comparative falling off in the richness of the earliest worked alluvial deposits; whereas immigration at the public expense was soon afterwards discontinued, and one class of miners suddenly reduced in numbers by the threatened exaction of residence-tax from the Chinese. Much labour was also withdrawn to the construction of railways as well as to agriculture by the opening up of the lands. But above all has been the drain annually caused by the reports of gold discoveries of surpassing richness in other colonies. In 1858 the Port Curtis rush drew ten or twelve thousand diggers to what is now the territory of Queensland; in 1859-60, at least an equal number were tempted by the glowing though fallacious accounts of the Snowy River diggings to cross the frontier into New South Wales; in the present year as many more have embarked for the gold fields in the Otago Province, New Zealand; and while it is still uncertain whether these will support a quarter of their present population, the note of preparation for a rush to the Lachlan in New South Wales is again being sounded by the Sydney press. The wonder is indeed that the effects of all this have not been more strongly exhibited at the Victoria gold fields, but it must be borne in mind that there always was a large unsettled population in this colony prospecting for new gold fields at home; and it is from this source mainly, though by no means exclusively, that these foreign rushes are fed, many diggers going to and returning disappointed from each in succession.

No accurate data exist for determining the numbers actually engaged in mining at the two periods, but some idea may be formed from the fact that so late as 1859, when the mining surveyors' reports were first published, it was computed at 125,764, whilst in the report for September last the aggregate stands at but 103,384. Added to this, more than 10,000 Chinese had left the colony between 1857 and 1859; their number now, allowing for a subsequent reduction of 3000, being estimated at 23,000 as against 36,000. A reduction to so great an extent in the labour applied goes a long way in accounting for the diminution in the product. It not merely explains why no great rush has taken place within the colony since 1858, and why so little new alluvial ground has been opened, but accounts in some degree for the deserted aspect of the old alluvial diggings around the towns I visited, which I anticipated, when there before, would give profitable employment in re-working for a far longer period.

The latter effect I, however, attribute quite as much to another cause—the over-extension of the leasing system, large areas having been granted under the regulations, either to co-operative associations of miners, or to joint-stock companies with non-resident proprietors, very few of which are now in operation, whilst many were from the beginning mere bubble speculations. The leases in such cases are now in process of forfeiture for non-compliance with the conditions; but meanwhile on every gold-field much ground is so engrossed which used to afford occasional employment to the less enterprising diggers. Many of these alluvial leases have failed from the difficulty of procuring water to wash up the stuff on a large scale as intended; and it was a great disappointment to me to find that none of the reservoirs which the Government have been constructing were yet available, or likely, according to general opinion, to be of much use eventually, owing to their not being situated at a high enough level, a fault greatly attributable to the insufficiency of the funds devoted to this object in each locality.

Meanwhile, in spite of the slower development of gold mining on the whole, the course of events has verified some of the surmises I threw out formerly; quartz reefs, for example, having been discovered in the Ovens district subsequent to my visit, and worked very profitably, whilst from Gipps Land, then only suspected of being auriferous, a contribution of nearly 1000 ounces per week is beginning to come in. The progress too of the geological survey in other parts of the colony fully confirms the views expressed by Mr. Selwyn, the Government geologist, as to the extent and richness of its auriferous resources, and, in his latest contribution to the preface to the catalogue of the Victorian Exhibition, he speaks no less sanguinely than heretofore. In one class of alluvial digging, indeed, to which he was, I believe, the first to direct attention—the sinking through the trap rock to the ancient watercourses which were covered late in the tertiary period by that volcanic eruption—I found the most extraordinary progress had been made since my former tour. It was then confined exclusively to Ballarat, except in a few instances where hillsides had been tunnelled on the Loddon and some of its tributaries, though it was predicted by the mining commissioners that gold would be found all the way to the Pyrenees, though it might be at a depth of several hundreds of feet. This is slowly being proved in the direction of Creswick and Clunes up to two remarkable volcanic hills, Mounts Greenock and Glasgow; but the operation of deep sinking is tedious, and requires a large capital; and it is only in the immediate vicinity of Ballarat that the results can be seen to advantage. The Governor gave an example of great success in mining industry on the Redan leads. It was begun in 1857, and before the solid rock was pierced to the depth of 350 feet, three years and a half expired, and nearly 20,000*l.* had been spent in pumping engines, timbering, &c., without reckoning the value of the labour of the eighty shareholders, worth at least as much more. This outlay, great as it was, has been richly rewarded, for in fifteen months from June, 1860, when they “bottomed,” as it is called, on the gold drift, 17,610 ounces of the precious metal had been raised, valued at 70,442*l.* In conclusion he called attention to the progress made in the extraction of the gold *in situ* from the veins of quartz which traverse the silurian strata.

JAMAICA DEBT.

Correspondence respecting a proposed Settlement of the Debt due by the Island of Jamaica, under the Act 2 and 3 Will. cap. 4. (125.)

On the 6th September, 1855, Governor Barkly sent a memorial of the executive committee, praying for a remission of the debt due, commonly granted in 1831-32 to relieve the colonists of Jamaica from the pressure of the enormous expense which a servile insurrection had brought upon them, on the ground of the depressed condition of agriculture and commerce in the island, the embarrassed state of its finances, and the consequent impossibility of making provision for liquidating the debt without neglecting to introduce measures long since urgently needed for educating and otherwise improving the emancipated peasantry. The governor bore testimony to the efforts made in the colony to balance the revenue and expenditure, and, on the whole, recommended that Parliament should forego its claim altogether in respect to the loan in question. The special grounds urged for this resolution were—1st. The inability of the colony to pay; 2nd. The omission of the Government to take any security when the money was advanced. 3rd. The omission to exact the interest for the last eight years; and 4th. The resistance and irritation likely to be created by the renewal of the claim. In answer to this letter, Mr. Merivale wrote on the 7th March, 1856, that Mr. Labouchere could not recommend to the Treasury that they should apply to Parliament for the pure and simple cancelment of the debt, but that it would not be demanded to be forthwith paid. M. Labouchere proposed that the Assembly should pay the interest with an understanding that her Majesty's Government would cause the money received by them to be applied to the payment of a salary to the governor, or such public uses for the colony as they should deem to be most for its advantage. In 1859, the Duke of Newcastle wrote to Governor Darling, inclosing a letter from the Treasury urging to have the matter brought again before the Legislative Council of Jamaica. And, on the 10th January, 1860, Governor Darling sent a copy of his message on the subject to the Assembly as the result of his efforts in the passing of an Act on the terms thereof. The message states the position of the loan in the following terms:—

The total amount of principal and accumulated interest, which will be due on the 5th of February next, is, in round numbers, 243,541*l*.

The nature of the security held by the Imperial Government, and the grounds upon which the action of the Colonial Legislature to effect the settlement of the debt may, in the opinion of that Government, be reasonably expected, are stated in the accompanying extract of a letter from the Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies to the Secretary of the Treasury, which the Governor transmits for the information of the Honourable House.

From this document the House will perceive that the Imperial Government feels itself precluded from applying to Parliament for a pure and simple cancelment of the debt, but the Governor has reason to believe that, still deeply sensible of the financial difficulties under which the colony has laboured, and sincerely desirous of aiding it in the progress it is now making in the restoration of its fiscal prosperity, and of promoting its good and quiet government, her Majesty's Ministers would be prepared to propose to Parliament that this debt should be considered as finally settled, if

the Legislature will consent to set apart from the permanent annual revenue a sum equal to the interest upon the principal as it stood upon the 5th of February, 1847, viz., 160,089*l.* 3*s.*, at 4 per cent. per annum, being, in round numbers, 6400*l.* a year, such amount, instead of being paid into the Imperial treasury, and appropriated to the uses of the mother country, to be applied by the authority of her Majesty's Government to the salary of the governor and other public services of this colony, to be determined by the Governor, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State.

The payment of the salary of the Governor would not, however, commence to be a charge upon the sum so appropriated until the arrival of the period which, under the regulations of the Colonial Department, would be the ordinary limit of the present Governor's administration, namely, the month of July, 1863, and the amount would, in the intervening period, be applied to such administrative purposes of the colony as the executive government, with the concurrence of the Secretary of State, might determine.

This arrangement, by which, if accepted, the debt, including principal and accumulated interest, would be converted into a perpetual annuity of 6400*l.* a year payable to her Majesty's Government, but to be appropriated to the benefit of the colony, is one of such manifest advantage that the Governor earnestly trusts he may be enabled to bring it under the consideration of the Secretary of State in the substantive form of a legislative enactment, in order that, by preventing the further accumulation of interest, the debt may not become still more formidable in amount before decisive steps for effecting its repayment could be finally adopted.

The Act in question provided for the reservation of 6400*l.* per annum out of duties levied on the colony as a perpetual annuity to the Imperial Government, to be applied to the service of the colony, the same to be in full settlement of the loan. The Treasury, upon the receipt of a communication to that effect from the Colonial Office, wrote that although the spirit of the offer made to the colony had been accepted, the amount that had been provided as the annuity, viz. 6400*l.*, fell short of that which might have been expected, that amount being only equal to the interest on the principal outstanding on the 5th of February, 1847. Some further correspondence arose on the appropriation of the sum, and on the 9th of September, 1861, the Secretary to the Treasury again wrote on the subject, and recapitulated what passed in reference to this debt, and suggested that an Act of the Imperial Parliament should precede, and not follow, the legislation of the colony on that subject. They proposed, therefore, that the colonial Act should remain in operation, and that next session a bill should be introduced into Parliament empowering the Legislature of Jamaica to pass an Act in conformity with the plan of settlement suggested by M. Labouchere in 1856, and enacting that it shall be lawful for the Treasury to accept such an Act as an arrangement by way of satisfaction for the debt. On the 10th of December, 1861, Governor Darling sent a despatch with a copy of a bill proposed to be introduced for placing at the disposal of her Majesty's Government the sum of 11,200*l.*, for the expense of the census out of the annuity granted in satisfaction of the debt, the sum to be applied to the benefit of the colony, and this communication having been approved by the Colonial Office was laid before the Treasury.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

25° & 26° VICTORIÆ, 1862.

 SERIES F.—BRITISH INDIA, COLONIES, &c.

 UNITED KINGDOM.

INDIA STOCKS.

CAP. VII.—*An Act to provide for the Registration and Transfer of India Stock at the Bank of Ireland, and for the Mutual Transfer of such Stocks from and to the Banks of England and Ireland.* (11th August, 1862.)

The expression India Stock to mean stock created for the raising of money in the United Kingdom on the credit of the revenues of India. Power was given to transfer India Stock from the books of the Bank of England to the books of the Bank of Ireland, and drawn from the books of the Bank of Ireland to those of the Bank of England. No transfer to be made within three days before the day on which the books are closed for the purpose of striking the balances. Application may be made to either bank for such a transfer, and upon its being made certificate of transfer to be granted, notices being sent of transfer, to the bank to which the stock is transferred. On production of certificate from the bank where the transfer is made, the bank to which it is made shall write the amount of stock in their books. Both banks must certify to the Secretary of State in council for India the amount of stock written in their books prior to dividend, and the interest to be paid to them by such Secretary of State.

WEST INDIA INCUMBERED ESTATES.

CAP. XLV.—*An Act to amend the West Indian Incumbered Estates Acts, 1854 & 1858.* (17th July, 1862.)

NEW ZEALAND.

CAP. XLVIII.—*An Act respecting the Establishment and Government of Provinces in New Zealand and to enable the Legislature of New Zealand to repeal the 73rd Section of an Act entitled an Act to grant a Representative Constitution to the Colony of New Zealand.* (29th July, 1862.)

The general assembly to provide for the establishment of new provinces in New Zealand, and to alter or provide for the alteration of boundaries. In every province there must be an officer designated as superintendent, and capable of being elected as a member of the council. No law to take effect until it receives the assent, in writing, of the superintendent, or of the governor of New Zealand. No money-bill to pass unless the money is previously appropriated.

JAMAICA LOAN.

CAP. LV.—*An Act for the Settlement of a Loan due from the Island of Jamaica to the Imperial Government.* (29th July, 1862.)

PUBLIC WORKS, IRELAND.

Thirtieth Report from the Board of Public Works, Ireland.

LAND IMPROVEMENT.—The works carried on under the superintendence of this board in connection with the Land Improvement Acts, have now been in progress for fifteen years, and have, even from the commencement, been conducted in a systematic and satisfactory manner; and we have the pleasure to record the unqualified acknowledgment of the landed proprietors who have obtained loans, of the benefits which have resulted from them, not only as regards the immediate effect produced by perfect thorough draining, which form the principal and most important feature of the works undertaken, but has proved to be a prelude to the extension of rotative husbandry throughout the country, not only on lands held by the proprietors themselves, but by their tenant-farmers, who have become alike vain of the success of the drains, and of the superior, green and cereal crops which have been produced from lands formerly swamps and water-logged, and consequently nearly waste; and these results have not been confined to lands drained through the assistance of loans obtained under the Land Improvement Act, but also from private funds expended both by the landlords and their tenants, and frequently by a joint contribution from both.

Owing to the unusual wetness of the summers, autumns, and winters of the two last years, 1860 and 1861, and the consequent injury to the crops of potatoes and oats, the poor man's crops, the small tenant-farmers have not been able to undertake draining improvements as in former years; but during the early part of the present year, 1862, an unusual number of applications for drainage loans have been made by landed proprietors, for the double purpose of improvement by draining, and as a means of giving employment to the labouring poor when most required, and every exertion has been made by the board to meet such demands by expediting as far as possible the arrangement requisite to facilitate the perfection of the loans, and issue the first instalments, feeling that doing so was so far aiding the most remunerative, as well as legitimate mode of administering relief to those who stood in need of it.

Having this object in view, many of the proprietors of large estates who had already received loans to the amount of 5000*l.*, the largest which could be obtained under the Act 13 and 14 Vic. c. 31, have applied for a relaxation of the rule, to enable them to meet the present exigency, and this request having been approved by your lordships, a bill is now in progress through Parliament to authorize the making of additional loans in excess of that limit, to the extent of 3000*l.*; and, in anticipation of the passing of the bill, several proprietors are at present making preparations for obtaining additional loans, the moment authority to make them has been sanctioned by the Legislature.

We have received the following gratifying statement from Mr. Thomas R. Hardy, land agent to a proprietor in the county of Wexford, which so fully exemplifies the benefit which has resulted from land improvement loans, that we think it important to insert it in our report, not so much from its being a singular example of the kind, as from the judicious and satisfactory arrangements made for carrying out the improvements in connection with the loans obtained:—

“The land in question (about 1000 statute acres) had previously been occupied by a number of small holders, who in 1848 and subsequent years,

were unable to pay their rents, and gave up their farms to the late Mr. W. J. Wallace; he held them in his own hands for some years, but without tilling or fully stocking them; they were destitute of farm residences or offices, and the land was in a very unimproved state. In the year 1858 we obtained permission to advertise the Dranagh farm (427 acres), and let it to very substantial tenants, on the following terms:—lease for thirty-one years, or life of one of the lessees. Being unable to expend any of our own money, it became necessary to give a long lease to induce the tenant to build the dwelling-house at a cost of 200*l.*—landlord undertaking to expend 400*l.* in erecting farm-offices, tenant to pay 5 per cent, on the outlay for offices.

“The tenant has since built a dwelling-house at a cost of 300*l.*, has expended above 100*l.* more, in addition, than the 400*l.* borrowed, on the offices, and is dividing the farm into large square fields of from twelve to eighteen acres. After Mr. Wallace’s death in 1860, we advertised the remainder of the land on hands, and let two farms, one of 440 acres, and the other 130 acres, at fair rents on leases of twenty-one years: on the first, the landlord agreed to expend 400*l.* on farm-offices, and 200*l.* on draining and fencing, the tenant paying 5 per cent. on the outlay; landlord to contribute 100*l.* without interest, and tenant also 100*l.* towards building a dwelling-house. On the smaller farm the landlord binding himself to drain all the wet land, to remove the rocks, stones, fences, &c., the tenant to pay 5 per cent on the outlay (from 100*l.* to 150*l.*) With a small contribution from the landlord towards building, the tenant bound himself to build a dwelling-house and offices suitable for the farm.

“Thus, with a property so circumstanced that we were unable to call on the proprietor to expend much money on permanent improvements, we have been enabled, through the facilities afforded by the Land Improvement Acts, and with the outlay of little more than 100*l.* of the funds of the proprietor; and by an annual charge for twenty-one years of 1½ per cent on about 1000*l.* borrowed under these acts, to set at a full rent to three men of capital, 1000 acres of land, and to erect thereon two good dwelling-houses, with large and commodious offices, at a cost of 1400*l.*; to expend between 300*l.* and 400*l.* in draining, fencing, &c., and to introduce into a district where it is greatly required, capital skill and improved husbandry. Were it not for these acts, we should have been obliged (under the circumstances), either to have let these lands at an under value to men of capital, who, on a twenty-one years’ lease, which the landlord had not power to exceed, might have been induced themselves to make all the very necessary improvements; or, following the ordinary system, might have let the land as heretofore, divided in small farms to pauper tenants, who would, as usual, have erected mud hovels, and in all probability the estate would have degenerated into the wretched and hopeless state of the year 1848, instead of presenting as it now does a scene of industry and successful improvement.”

Up to the 31st March, 1862, 3713 loans have been sanctioned by your lordships; but, as mentioned in previous reports, during the period which has elapsed between the year 1847, when the first loans were made, and the termination of the period reported on, considerable sums which had been so sanctioned have been cancelled by this board, under the powers given in the Act 13 & 14 Vic., c. 31. At the close of the financial year ending March, 1862, there remained unappropriated out of the fund of 2,000,000*l.*

voted by Parliament for the land improvement service in Ireland, the sum of 304,438*l*.

The sum issued on account of works up to the 31st March, 1862, amounted to 1,625,981*l*, of which 1,533,671*l* was expended on the loans which have been completed, and 92,310*l* has been issued on 288 loans which are in progress, or have not been finally closed. These totals comprehend 251 loans, amounting to a sum of 87,410*l*, which have been sanctioned, to proprietors for the erection of farm buildings, and 12 loans, amounting to 7150*l*, for the erection of labourers' dwellings, particulars respecting which we give under their respective heads.

Thorough Drainage, &c.—The number of acres that have been thorough drained under the Land Improvement Acts from the commencement up to the 31st March in this year amounts to 200,203 acres, which has been effected at an average cost of 4*l* 17*s*. per acre. Of this quantity, 6503 acres have been drained during the period from 1st January, 1861, to 31st March, 1862. A considerable portion of the land drained has been sub-soiled. In the year 1853 the number of acres drained was 6300; in 1859, 3300; in 1860, 4500; and from the end of 1860 to 31st March, in this year, 6503.

Farm Buildings.—For the erection of farm buildings, 251 loans, amounting to a sum of 87,410*l*, have been sanctioned to proprietors, of which 193 loans, amounting to 66,010*l*, have been completed. Of the remaining 58 loans for farm buildings which have been sanctioned, 20, amounting to 6380*l*, have not been proceeded with.

Labourers' Dwellings.—In our last report we stated to your lordships the measures adopted by us with a view to giving effect to the provisions of the Act 23 Vic., c. 19, authorizing this board to make loans for the erection of dwellings for the labouring classes; but we had then to report that, "Although plans, specifications, and estimates, together with the instructions, have been printed, and extensively distributed through the country, only twelve applications for loans for the erection of labourers' dwellings have as yet been received by the board." We have now, however, the satisfaction of stating that, as the provisions of this enactment are becoming understood, proprietors seem desirous of availing themselves of its advantages. We have received thirty-one applications for loans, and twelve amounting to 7150*l*, have been sanctioned by your lordships.

Pursuing the arrangement heretofore adopted, we now proceed to give the following information from the reports of our inspectors:—

Northern District.—We shall commence with the northern district, in which the sum of 10,576*l* has been issued since 1860, in the following proportions:—

Antrim, 2480*l*.; Londonderry, 1000*l*.; Donegal, 343*l*.; Fermanagh, 4520*l*.; Tyrone, 1800*l*.; Armagh, 40*l*.; Down, 396*l*.

Mr. William F. Irwin, employed as inspector for portions of the northern, for the Dublin, and occasionally for other districts, reports, that fourteen years' experience of the working of the Land Improvement Acts in several districts in Ireland confirm both his estimation of their value as the basis of improved agriculture in this country, and the universal approbation which has been so frequently expressed of the benefit which has been derived from the execution, whether of thorough drainage, of the erection of farmsteadings, or of other works under its provisions. In the county Derry, Major Scott has recommenced works, by erecting new fences for squaring

farms and fields, and thorough drainage, being a continuation of similar works executed on his estate in the years 1848 and 1849.

Major Scott's agent informed him, that every tenant whose farm had been improved under former loans, though charged interest on the expenditure, was satisfied and grateful for the benefit conferred; and it is pleasing to contrast the crops produced on the improved farms, with those the drainage of which has not yet been undertaken. During the last two years much regret has been expressed, on account of the difficulty of obtaining a sufficient number of labourers to execute extensive works; and, in consequence, several of that character have not been commenced; but if public notice were given that extensive works were to be executed, and at an increase of from 25 to 30 per cent. on the wages of former times, the number of men required could be obtained. In proof of the correctness of this opinion it may be stated that extensive works have been executed in the count Down on the estate of the Marquis of Londonderry; Captain Tenison's, in the county Antrim; Lord Massereene's estate, in the county Louth; Mr. Smith Barry's estate, in the county Meath, and many others situated in the midland and southern counties, not necessary to specify;—in all which cases, works have been both expeditiously and satisfactorily executed; and, as a general rule, it may be stated, that where works are carried on vigorously, they are usually well and cheaply executed, while those carried on at intervals, during several years, are rarely perfect, and always costly. So, during the past year, it was difficult to procure a sufficient quantity of draining tiles; caused partly from the inclemency of the season, and partly from the increased demand. In regard to the latter, the following return of sales between April, 1861, and April, 1862, was obtained from one of the tileries at Coal Island, in the county Tyrone (Shane's). The answer was as follows, for the twelvemonth:—1,551,200 1½-inch tiles, 102,060 2-inch tiles, 188,380 3-inch tiles, 8600 4-inch tiles, 4060 6-inch tiles; total, 1,854,300 pipe tiles; and yet the supply was not equal to the demand; and similar statements might be made from almost every tillery in Ireland.

The erection of labourers' dwellings of a superior description, though not expensive, has been commenced in different localities, especially on the estates of the Marquis of Londonderry and Colonel Forde, both in the county Down. In regard to the vexed question between deep and shallow draining, it may be desirable to advert to the relative merits of the two systems, as tried by Mr. Andrews, agent to the Marquis of Londonderry, in the county of Down, where thorough drainage is being executed on a large scale. Mr. Andrews, an extensive practical farmer of great experience, being of opinion that shallow drains, three feet deep and twenty-one feet apart are the best, while Mr. Irwin advocates drains of from four feet to four feet six inches in depth, where sufficient outfall can be obtained, and placed at intervals suitable to the nature of the soil, say, from thirty to fifty, or even sixty feet apart.

The greater part of the drainage has been effected on the shallow principle, the drains being three feet deep, and twenty-one feet apart; but one large field has been drained at four feet deep, and thirty feet apart; and in reply to an application to make a trial of the effect of the two systems after heavy rain, the following reply, dated Comber, April 29th, 1862, has been received:—

"I deferred replying to your letter till I should be enabled to make

an examination of the ground which would render my report satisfactory.

"The heavy rains prevented that examination, and we waited till to-day, when a few dry days have given time for the action of the drains in drying the soil.

"The ground was opened midway between the drains, both of four feet deep, at thirty feet apart, and at three feet deep, twenty-one feet apart.

"The result was, that in the ground drained at twenty-one feet apart by three feet drains, we found that it was quite dry to the depth of thirty-four inches; and in that drained at thirty feet by four feet drains, at the depth of thirty-one inches it became wet, showing that the drains had not acted so speedily at the wide as the narrower space. Still, it was very satisfactory to find that, after a brief interval of dry weather, the soil in both cases was sufficiently dried for any practical purpose. We certainly perceived, from the first, that the ground became sooner dry and firm to the foot, on walking over it, in the large portion drained at the narrower distances; but all the drainage is efficient and satisfactory; and we have been enabled to execute all field labour, including the sowing of the seeds, much earlier than was practicable on the undrained lands in the vicinity; and we have had superior crops, both white and green, on the whole."

It appears from the foregoing, that there was an apparent superiority in the three feet drains; but it is reasonable to suppose, that had the trial been delayed for a few days longer, the four feet drains would have been found acting to their full depth, that is, forty-five inches deep, midway between the minor drains, thereby reducing the water-table eleven inches deeper below the level of the surface than the drains three feet deep could do. This additional depth must be considered of great value in agricultural operations. The temperature of the land being raised thereby, and the rain and air permeating the soil, rendering it more fit to support vegetable life.

In the county Kildare, Mr. William Bellingham has drained some land at depths from five to six feet, and at intervals varying from eighty to one hundred feet apart, cutting into the rock (calp). The works have been perfectly successful, and the improvement much greater than on adjoining land drained four feet deep and forty feet apart. The greater superiority of one over the other can only be attributed to the raising of temperature by the deeper system, as the lands were similar in every respect, and both drainages were executed with equal care under Mr. Bellingham's own immediate inspection.

Mr. William P. Prendergast, inspector of drainage for the district comprising the counties of Fermanagh, Cavan and Leitrim, with portions of the adjoining counties of Tyrone, Sligo, &c., reports that "in these counties there has been more exertion made during the year 1861 than in the preceding year in thorough drainage and general land improvement, both from private resources and by aid of loans obtained through the Office of Public Works; and the fund at the disposal of the board has been found as valuable an auxiliary in a bad season, both to landowners, tenant-farmers, and labourers, as when first provided by the Legislature."

The principal loans reported on in this district during the last year are for the estates of the Marquis of Ely, Lord Belmore, Mr. Edward Archdall, Captain Mervyn Archdall, M.P., Mr. Paul Dane, Sir Emerson Tennent, in the county of Fermanagh; Colonel Whyte, Mr. F. Cullen, Mr. Fitz-

patrick, Mr. Jones, in the county Leitrim; Mr. G. P. M'Clintock and Lord Belmore, in Tyrone; the Marquis of Headfort, Sir John Young, Mr. Roberts, in the county Cavan.

It is so far a satisfactory evidence of the successful working of the Acts, that the system of thorough drainage approved by the Board of Works, and, in fact, in great part first introduced by their inspectors, has been followed very generally by those who work from private resources in the neighbourhood of estates improved by loans; and also, that landowners who had loans under the acts several years ago express their approval, having sufficient experience of the successful result of the works executed, as Mr. Prendergast further proceeds to state:—

“Having continued in uninterrupted personal intercourse with the greater number of resident gentlemen in all these counties since the year 1847, he has had several opportunities of observing the improvement of their estates, and of hearing the remarks and suggestions of the most practical and experienced land owners, agents, and agriculturists; and as many have within the last few years obtained further loans in consequence of their first expenditure having proved satisfactory, he is in the habit of ascertaining from them whether they wish for any changes in plans and specifications, or estimates, and in what way they think the Acts can be rendered most useful and convenient to them.

“The only material difference made of late years is in lessening the distance between the minor parallel drains in strong retentive clays from forty feet (which was frequently adopted at the time Mr. Parkes was draining the Phoenix Park, and various estates in England) to about thirty feet, still retaining the depth of four feet as a general rule, but continuing in all other details the same system, at a cost of about 4*l.* 10*s.* per statute acre, or 5*l.*, including levelling, stubbing, &c.

“Land owners and agents also express themselves as quite satisfied with the facilities afforded them at the office of Public Works, and say that they have no complaint to make of the forms and rules adopted in the administration of the Acts, or of any undue technicalities being put in their way, or causing them trouble. A wish has been expressed in some quarters that the building of lime-kilns for agricultural purposes should be among the items allowed, and Mr. Wynne, of Hazlewood, and others, now wish that loans for farm offices should be admitted for farms of 50*l.* a year annual value, and that one owner should not be limited to 5000*l.* as a maximum, but with the exception of a few such additions suggested by gentlemen who devote their time to the careful improvement of their estates, and a very general desire on the part of the owners of large properties, that an Act should be passed to facilitate the cutting of general main outlets through two or more estates, no changes have been sought for, and the progress made in the knowledge of drainage and general agricultural improvement by resident proprietors becomes each year more remarkable; and although on small farms, where no resident landlord or active agent encourages or induces the ordinary tenants to improve, there may be no great apparent change, yet each year the number of examples of judicious enterprise becomes greater, and these act as centres of improvement whence knowledge spreads; and a very active energetic clergyman, lately come to the well-known parish of Cloone, in the county of Leitrim, pointed out to me several small beginnings of drainage among the neighbouring farmers, since they have observed the results of his work under the Land Improve-

ment Act. He said that no teaching or description had any effect on them, but one year's example of the improvement caused by a drainage before their own eyes, convinced them and induced a beginning, at least of such work among them, which it is hoped may be continued. Of course it is the drainage followed up by proper manuring and cultivation that tells, and not mere drainage of cold clay lands without further exertion; although, at first, many seemed to effect great results from drainage alone, and have only of late years understood the subject better."

Among the remarkable changes and proofs of advance in agricultural matters of late years, Mr. Prendergast alludes to the increased supply of expensive machinery and implements among tenant farmers, and the demand for draining tiles. "Some years ago a gentleman of property in the north-west, inquired how it was possible that pipes could serve for drains, because he did not understand how the water was to get into them; the specifications were attended to, and he was not convinced of the effect until a drain was laid, and the water seen coming out, which disposed of the objection. But, for some years, very few proprietors would use tiles, while at present the numerous tileries in the north-west are unable to supply the demand, and in Fermanagh there is a constant complaint that drainage works are impeded by the want of a sufficient supply at Lord Enniskillen's tillery at Florence Court, and yet his manager states that 805,600 pipe tiles and collars were sold in the year 1861; and it appears that Mr. Francis La Touche's tillery, recently completed on the banks of the Shannon at Leitrim, is unable to supply the demand. With regard to the increased number of agricultural machines and implements now used in Ireland, it may be stated as an instance, that on Lord Belmore's estate, in the county of Fermanagh, for which loans to the full amount of 5000*l.* have been obtained, the following implements have been imported for the use of tenants:—1 steam-engine (for threshing out, bruising, chaff-cutting, &c.), 2 threshing machines with fans attached, 7 threshing machines, 49 common ploughs, 8 double-mould board ploughs, 2 turnreist (or one way) ploughs, 20 field grubbers (3-horse), 7 drill grubbers, 7 turnip sowers (double and single drill), 3 iron harrows (angle), 7 churning machines, 2 cast-iron field rollers, 2 straw cutters, 1 oat crusher, 2 double-blast fanners, 1 combined reaping and mowing machine, 1 hay-tosser, 1 hay-rake (horse), and 1 hay-rake. Within the same time have been built:—45 new dwelling-houses (slated), 25 new sets of farm-offices (slated), 5 sets farm-offices (raised and slated), and 6 new labourer's cottages, built and slated.

"And during the same year, 250 acres of bog have been reclaimed; 1000 acres of land thorough drained; new fences and new farm-roads completed in connection with the drained and improved land."

Mr. Prendergast's report concludes by referring to a letter received from Colonel Whyte, who has worked under loans from the board since 1848, and has just expended his last instalment. Being a constant resident in the country, his experience is practical, and his opinion is, in consequence, worth recording.

" Newtown Manor, County Leitrim, March 26, 1862.

"With reference to your letter requesting information as to work done lately on this estate, I beg to say, that the whole of the loan of 5000*l.* has been expended, and the work is ready for inspection.

"I have reason to believe that there is still a considerable portion of the money originally allotted for the purpose of land improvement unappropriated,

and I think much good would accrue to the country, if such land-owners as may be able to show sufficient security were allowed to exceed the 5000*l.* to which they are at present restricted. For my own part such benefit has arisen to my estate, both pecuniarily and morally, from the money I have laid out in drainage and other improvements during the last ten years, that I would gladly, if permitted, take 2000*l.* more for the same purposes. In the event of such a grant taking place, I beg to suggest that it would be considerably to the advantage of those using it, were they permitted to employ a portion of it in the erection of lime-kilns.

“Signed J. J. WHITE, Colonel.”

Midland and Eastern District.—In this district the sum of 17,170*l.* has been issued in the following proportions:—Cavan, 500*l.*; Monaghan, 180*l.*; Longford, 200*l.*; Louth, 660*l.*; Meath, 3820*l.*; Westmeath, 240*l.*; Dublin, 685*l.*; Kildare, 985*l.*; King's, 360*l.*; Queen's, 3010*l.*; Wicklow, 200*l.*; Carlow, 1010*l.*; Kilkenny, 3380*l.*; and Wexford, 1940*l.* Mr. Henry Newton, Inspector of Drainage for the county of Wexford, reports that, “during the past year, he made a final inspection of the drainage and other works of improvement executed on the property of Harry Alcock, Esq., and also on that of Viscount Monck, in the Barony of Bantry. The works were in every case well executed, and a quantity of waste land converted into good tillage, meadow, and pasture. Mr. Francis Bruen, in the Barony of Bargy, has, under a loan, fenced and partially drained a quantity of land embanked from the sea, with the greatest possible effect—so much so, that a large part of this hitherto unproductive land has been let to respectable tenants at 40*s.* per acre. The Messrs. Purdon have, working under a loan, subsoiled and cleared of roots a large part of Killoughrim Forest, in the barony of Bantry. This land has produced much better corn and green crops than could have been anticipated. In the barony of Forth, Mr. Howlan Graves has obtained a small loan, to subsoil and clear of stones some waste land, on ground of a similar quality, treated in like manner. And in the barony of Scarawalsh, Mr. W. J. Wallace is erecting a set of farm offices for an improving Scotch tenant; and works similar to those executed under the Land Improvement Act are being carried out by both landlords and tenants from their own resources in many parts of the country.”

Western District. In this district, comprehending the province of Connaught, with the county of Clare, the sum of 6490*l.* has been issued as follows:—Sligo, 440*l.*; Leitrim, 1130*l.*; Mayo, 740*l.*; Roscommon, 1790*l.*; Galway, 2390*l.*; and Clare, 100*l.* Mr. Richard Irwin, Inspector of Drainage for the north-western districts, reports that, “during the whole of the year 1861, the weather was, with the exception of a few short and distant intervals, exceedingly unfavourable for every description of rural work—so much so, that it was not without much difficulty and many disappointments, that the ordinary farm works of spring and harvest were carried out in this district; and even where the greatest attention was bestowed, much of the work was imperfectly and unsuccessfully performed, although the farmers, with few exceptions, exerted themselves in the most laudable manner, and, during the few weeks of comparatively fine weather, secured the services of every available labourer at much more than double any previous rate of wages. From the causes above stated, works in progress under the Land Improvement Acts were almost exclusively executed during wet, broken weather; and, as often occurs in such cases, differences of opinion between the employers and the employed are

believed to have had the effect of suspending (or at least of retarding), improvements; and hence several proprietors who intended to commence works, were deterred by unsatisfactory reports of the labour market, as well as by the continued wet weather, and thought it better to postpone them. Yet, under such discouraging circumstances, important and valuable works of land improvement have been carried out in each of the four counties which belong either wholly, or in part, to this district. Thus, in Roscommon, a large extent of improvement (chiefly thorough drainage), has been completed on the estates of Mr. W. Longfield, the Honourable and Very Reverend the Dean of Lismore, Colonel French, M.P., Mr. Patrick H. O'Connor, Mr. W. J. M'Loughlin, Mr. James Young, and Mr. J. L. Hackett; in Mayo, on the properties of Mr. S. Bourne, Mr. William F. Smith, and Mr. Frederick T. Lewen; in Sligo, on the estates of Mr. R. J. Verschoyle, Mr. A. L. Popham, Captain J. Wingfield King, and Major Richard Phibbs; and in the north and north-west division of Galway, on the properties of Mr. William Burke, Mr. Charles P. Archer, and Mr. D. O'C. French. The works, so far as investigated at progress inspections, have been generally well executed, but at increased expense, as compared with the average of previous years, the difference being, in ordinary cases, from ten to twenty per cent.

"The increasing appreciation by the small farmers of the district of the value of land improvement, (already noticed in former reports,) has been still further increased by the marked beneficial results of effective drainage during the two last unprecedentedly wet years. In the course of a recent tour through the greater part of the district, I was everywhere assured that many hundreds of families had been 'preserved from hunger' by the improvement of their farms, particularly by thorough drainage, which had saved their crops from destruction; and by bog reclamation, which had enabled them to raise almost the only sound potato crops of the district on tracts which had previously been totally uncultivated and unproductive. In fact, there appeared to be no difference of opinion on the subject, as all who spoke to me in reference to it, expressed not only willingness, but anxiety, to undertake the repayment of the expense, if their landlords would carry out the works under the provisions of the Land Improvement Acts.

"The various farm buildings referred to in former reports are now either completed or very nearly so; and one new farm-steading of the very best description (having an excellent new farm-house attached), on the property of Mr. St. George Caulfield (barony of Ballymoo and county of Roscommon), has been commenced and completed within the year. This farm-steading, and the well-planned and carefully-built farm offices of Mr. Henry Faussett, (barony of Tyrawley, and county of Mayo), form a valuable addition to the agricultural buildings already completed in the district under the provisions of the Acts."

Mr. Samuel U. Roberts, inspector of drainage for Galway, reports, that "the works carried out in this district under the Land Improvement Act during the past year, have been confined to the completion of farm offices and some drainage works previously commenced.

"Mr. Blakeney, of Abbert, has by a second loan built a large addition to his farm offices near Abbert, and the steading is now very commodious and perfect. Mr. Blakeney is now commencing very extensive works of arterial, main, and thorough drainage, both at Abbert and Castleblakeney, both of which promise to be remunerative.

“Mr. Blake, of Glenlo, has completed the works of fencing and clearing on his property near Galway.

“The extraordinary wetness of last autumn and winter retarded the completion of many works that were in progress, and prevented others for which loans had been obtained being proceeded with. There is, however, every prospect of extensive work being carried out in the approaching season under the provisions of the acts, not only for the improvement of land, but with the view of affording employment during a season which is anticipated will be attended with much distress to the labouring classes in portions of the western district.”

Southern District.—In this district the sum of 13,610*l.* has been issued, as follows:—Limerick, 4020*l.*; Tipperary, 3560*l.*; Cork, 2570*l.*; and Kerry, 3460*l.*

Mr. John Cox, inspector of drainage for the county of Limerick and adjoining districts, reports, that, “during the last few years the landed proprietors have shown much apathy in regard to extending works of land improvement on their estates, the excuse being the scarcity of labourers, and the high price demanded for task-work; but the necessity of affording employment during the last winter and present spring, in consequence of the late unfavourable season, has given a considerable impetus to the recommencement of works of a reproductive character as compared with the last three or four years. During the last year he has prepared preliminary plans, &c., the estimates for loans amounting to nearly 13,000*l.* Those works would include three applications for farm buildings, and two for labourers’ dwellings, the latter in cases of the Earl of Devon and Archdeacon Goold. Within the same period he has reported on several works of like character in progress; and he is happy in being able to state, that in no instance has he heard anything like an expression of regret from the several parties for having undertaken such works; on the contrary, a strong sense of the benefits derived has been expressed by all, whether landlord, tenant, or operative.

Mr. J. Jocelyn Poe, inspector of drainage for the county of Tipperary and adjoining districts, reports that, “more attention to land improvement works have been paid than during the last years, and that some application have been recently made for loans both for drainage and for farm buildings, that several of the works which were in progress have been satisfactorily completed, fully realizing to the proprietors the advantages they had anticipated.

“The extreme wetness of the two last years has fairly tested the system of deep thorough drainage, and proved its superior advantages. The tenant farmers who were formerly averse to it are now adopting it, and drains less than four feet deep have now become the exception; and he finds that almost every farmer drains effectually a portion of his farm every year, and, in addition, frequently subsoils the tillage land.

“The drainage works most extensively carried on at present are on the estate of Mr. Carden, adjoining Barnane. He has used tiles almost exclusively, obtained from different tileries in the country, the best being supplied from Lord Derby’s estate, near Tipperary. Two hundred and fifty persons have been employed daily at Mr. Carden’s works, greatly benefiting the labours, some of whom gladly come a distance of four miles to their work.

“The farm steadings erected by Mr. Trant, near Dovea, have progressed

rapidly, and, though extensive, will be convenient in every respect, affording a useful model for other proprietors.

"In the barony of Owney and Arra, Mr. William Power, who recently purchased part of the Henry estate, has drained very perfectly upwards of 100 acres. Mr. Hanagan, and Mr. William Poe, who had also purchased some lots of the same estate, are proceeding to apply for loans for drainage; and he has heard that other applications will also be made, as the proprietors are anxious to afford remunerative employment to the labouring population of the district, many of whom are at present much distressed."

Mr. Arthur U. Roberts, inspector of drainage for the county of Waterford, reports that, "no new loans have been granted in my district for the last twelve months, but an application is about to be made by a proprietor of considerable property near Waterford for a loan of 2000*l.*, to be expended in drainage and buildings.

"I believe the old loans have all been closed; and in a great many places the tenants are now paying a per centage for the money which has been expended on their farms. It will be satisfactory to hear that, as far as I can learn, these payments are made most cheerfully, and in many cases tenants have applied to their landlords for sums to be expended in such works as the Board consider profitable, saying, they would gladly pay the percentage."

He also states, with pleasure, "that, in the county of Waterford the tenants themselves evince a greater disposition to expend their own money in drainage and fencing than formerly;" and, "that this has in a great measure been brought about from their observing the improvements commenced and completed under the Land Improvement Act."

The foregoing extracts, from the annual reports received from the inspectors of drainage under the Land Improvement Acts, show the general character and extent of some of the principal works executed, or which are in progress, in the different districts from north to south; and there can be no doubt that the success which has attended every department of the work has led not only to an increased demand for loans, but has been the cause of even more numerous and extensive works being undertaken and executed from their own funds by landed proprietors as well as by their tenant farmers, who in every case have followed the system laid down in our printed instructions, which include thorough drainage, the erection of farm buildings, accompanied by plans and detailed estimates, as well as plans, specifications, and estimates for the erection of labourers' dwellings.

ARTERIAL DRAINAGE, WITH IMPROVEMENTS OF NAVIGATION AND WATER POWER.—Our duties in connection with the works of arterial drainage have been confined, during the past year, to determining, on the application of proprietors, the amount of increased rent to be paid by tenants holding under leases in respect of the benefit derived by them from improvements in their holdings, resulting from the drainage operations, and to giving information, assistance, and advice to the trustees of districts, on such points connected with their trusts as they might request, and which we have felt it within our province to give—all executive operations having, as stated in the previous year's report, been brought to a close.

The Clonakilty slob-lands still remain under our charge, and the Shanagolden district also has not yet been finally disposed of.

Four supplemental awards have been made during the year by direction

of your lordships, on the recommendation of the commissioners of special inquiry, the amounts remitted being as follow:—Lough Dalla, October 10, 1861, 371*l.* 9*s.* 11*d.*; Mullafarry, 243*l.* 9*s.* 5*d.*; Moyne and Crosspatrick, 219*l.* 12*s.* 3*d.*; Carriggower, Oct. 22, 789*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.*; total, 1624*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* The whole expenditure charge against the different undertakings commenced under the arterial drainage acts, including 70,201 for works chargeable to counties, amounted at the end of March, 1862, to 2,382,026*l.*; and the repayments in respect thereof, amounted to 537,797*l.*

HARBOURS.—*Kingstown Harbour.*—The shed or roof on the new steam packet pier referred to in last year's report was duly and satisfactorily completed; the operations of landing and embarking passengers and her Majesty's mails, continue to be carried on with despatch and regularity. The works have been chiefly for repairs and maintenance, which, from the extent of the breakwaters, wharfs, and approaches, are unavoidably heavy. We are also levelling off, regulating, and fencing the top surface of the piers.

Howth Harbour.—The work here has been confined to adding some heavy rough material to, and repairing the sea slope of, the breakwater, which requires to be closely attended to. No serious damage was suffered during the past winter.

Dunmore East.—During the past summer we gave the sea slopes of the breakwater and the top surface of the arched cellars and wharfs a thorough repair, and they are now in excellent order. No damage was sustained during the past winter, though some very fearful storms occurred.

Donaghadee.—The removal of a sheet of rock *in situ* in front of the North Pier Head has been a very difficult, and, for its extent, expensive operation; but it progresses satisfactorily, and we have no doubt of bringing the works of improvement to a close in the summer of 1862.

INLAND NAVIGATIONS.—*Shannon and Maigue.*—These navigations, as well as the various works on the Lower Shannon, are in excellent order, and notwithstanding the unprecedented floods that have prevailed, we do not anticipate a necessity for any serious outlay beyond that for ordinary repairs and maintenance, except for the basin at Foynes, which still continues to be affected seriously by silting.

Tyrone Navigation—Coal Island Canal.—The expenditure here has been confined to mere ordinary works of maintenance, and nothing beyond this is likely to be required for the ensuing year, the entire navigation being in a very satisfactory state.

Boyne Navigation.—The works of this navigation are fully maintained and in excellent condition.

POST ROADS.—On the application of the postmaster-general under the 61st section of the above Act, repairs have been executed, during the past year, on post roads, situated in the following counties:—Clare, Cork, Donegal, Kerry, Leitrim, Sligo, Tipperary, Wicklow. These repairs have been executed under the superintendence of the respective county surveyors, at a cost of 1,257*l.* 11*s.* 5*d.*, repayable by grand jury presentment at subsequent assizes.

THAMES EMBANKMENT COMMISSION (SURREY SIDE), 1862.

Report of the Commissioners appointed to examine into Plans for Embanking the Surrey side of the River Thames, within the Metropolis.

WE the undersigned members of your Majesty's Commission appointed to examine plans for embanking the Surrey side of the River Thames, within the metropolis, and to report "which of the said plans of embankment will, in our opinion, conduce with the greatest efficiency and economy to the improvement, embellishment, and convenience of that part of the metropolis, improve the navigation of the river, and provide a public thoroughfare, without stopping such trade as must be carried on upon the bank of the river, and also upon the cost and means of carrying the same into execution," beg to submit the following remarks.

The nature of the inquiry entrusted to us was made known by advertisements in the newspapers, and twenty designs were submitted for consideration. A short description of each is appended. The authors have attended, given full explanations, and stated their respective views, as will be seen in the evidence hereto annexed.

We must here express our opinion of the excellence of many of the plans submitted to us; and although we cannot recommend any one plan for adoption in its entirety as meeting all the requirements of the case, yet the principal features of some of them are embodied in the plan we have the honour to suggest.

Some of the plans comprise the whole length of the Surrey shore from Deptford to Battersea Park; and we have accordingly directed our inquiries to that extent.

We propose to divide this district into three sections—the first extending from Deptford to Westminster Bridge; the second from Westminster Bridge to Vauxhall Bridge; and the third from Vauxhall Bridge to Battersea Park.

With respect to the first section, as the existing thoroughfares with the new street now being made between Southwark and Blackfriars Road will, in our opinion, afford sufficiently convenient and direct means of communication for the traffic—and as the flooding of the low-lying districts could be obviated by a more efficient system of drainage—there does not appear to us any public necessity for an embankment and roadway between Deptford and Westminster Bridge. The formation of such a roadway would involve a vast expenditure of money, and cause a great disturbance of the trade and commerce of that part of the metropolis. If, however, the owners and occupiers of such wharf property should be desirous at any time of constructing an embankment, which, whilst increasing their own accommodation, would ensure uniformity of design, and improve the navigation of the river, we are of opinion that every facility should be afforded them for so doing, although we are unable to recommend that the cost should be defrayed by the public.

With respect to the second section, namely, from Westminster Bridge to Vauxhall, we are of opinion that a new and improved communication is necessary, and this, we think, may be effected by constructing an embankment and roadway between those points. The property adjacent to the river between Lambeth Church and Vauxhall Bridge is of an inferior character. The wharf walls are insufficient to keep out the water at high

tides, hence many of the streets are at times flooded, causing distress and sickness to the inhabitants, who are for the most part of the poorer classes.

Between Vauxhall Bridge and Battersea Park, which comprises the third section of our inquiry, an embanked roadway would afford access to the Battersea station of the South Coast Railway, and to the goods station of the South-Western, and Chatham and Dover Railways; would improve and embellish that part of the metropolis, and afford a convenient and agreeable approach to Battersea Park from the densely-populated districts of Lambeth and Southwark.

We, therefore, humbly submit to your Majesty that an embanked roadway of about two miles in length should be formed between Westminster Bridge and Battersea Park, commencing at the east abutment of Westminster Bridge, on a viaduct of an ornamental character opposite the Houses of Parliament, as far as Bishop's Walk; thence on a solid embankment to the north side of the London Gas-works, continued under Vauxhall Bridge as far as Nine Elms on a viaduct, and thence upon a solid embankment, passing under the land arch of the railway bridge, and terminating at the approach road of the new suspension bridge at Battersea. The plan and section show the direction and levels of the intended road, and the arrangements proposed for accommodating some of the occupiers of the most important of the water-side premises; and in suggesting viaducts we have endeavoured not to interfere, more than is absolutely necessary, with the trades which must be carried on upon the banks of the river.

The dredging of the foreshore in the front of the embankment to a level of five feet below low water will (particularly at Lambeth and Nine Elms) improve the navigation, compensate to a great extent for the loss of tidal water displaced by the solid portions of the embankment, and as the foreshore will be formed, under the viaduct, of solid material, and on a suitable incline, it will tend to prevent accumulations of mud, where the shores are flat or uneven.

Communications with the embankment would be made at Stangate, by prolonging Palace New Road, and widening Bishop's Walk on the western side, Church Street, Broad Street, Vauxhall Row, High Street, Battersea Road near Nine Elms goods station, New Park Road leading to Wandsworth, and the station of the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway Company.

The estimated cost of this work, including land and compensation, is 1,100,000*l.*; but it is important to observe, that if the present favourable opportunity for carrying out this great work be not at once embraced, the cost will necessarily be much greater, by reason of the increasing demand for land and buildings for trade purposes in and near to the metropolis. This scheme would be a metropolitan improvement; and with reference to the means by which the cost is to be defrayed, we consider that the coal and wine dues should be appropriated for such a further period as may be necessary for the purpose.

All which we humbly report to your Majesty.

The report was signed by William Cubitt, Joshua Jebb, Douglas Galton, Edward Burstal, Henry A. Hunt, John Robinson McClean.

The following are extracts from the minutes of evidence:—

Necessity of a Southern Embankment.—Mr. Frederick Doulton gave the following evidence on this subject:—

[182]

"The arguments in favour of a southern embankment appear to me to be based upon three very simple facts, and they are these:—First, that we are periodically subjected to floods of a very disastrous character; secondly, that we also suffer from pestilential mud banks on the southern shore; and thirdly, that we require an embankment on the southern side to afford us increased facilities for traffic. Those are the three points which appear to me to be the basis of any argument in favour of a southern embankment. The floods of which we complain affect two classes of inhabitants, and in a different manner; they affect the poorer class of our inhabitants, and they affect also, though not to the same extent or in the same manner, the manufacturers and wharfingers. They affect the poor most disastrously; between Westminster Bridge and Nine Elms there are some hundreds of habitations in which are located the very poorest class of the inhabitants of Lambeth; they are for the most part persons who do not occupy an entire house, but who reside in apartments.

The inhabitants of those houses have sometimes one, sometimes two rooms, and the consequence is, that when these floods occur, and not only then but in ordinary high tides, the inhabitants of those rooms are either compelled to seek shelter in the upper part of the house, where there are other lodgers, or, as is very often the case, are driven into the streets until those floods have subsided. These poor creatures return, the moment the floods are over, into their soddened houses, and I need scarcely point out the amount of disease which is inevitably generated by such a state of things. That is how it affects our poorer inhabitants. But these floods also affect to a considerable extent the manufacturers and wharfingers. The case of the firm with which I am connected is perhaps the case of many other manufacturers in Lambeth and in Vauxhall, and also lower down the river between Westminster and Blackfriars. We have wharf property immediately abutting on the river; on the other side of the street we have our manufactory; and not only upon the occasions to which I have referred when we have these heavy floods, but when we have very high spring tides, which occur, perhaps, thirteen or fourteen times in a year, our manufactory is completely and entirely shut off from our wharf. On one side of the road we have our wharf; on the other our manufactory. Our business requires a communication to be made almost every minute in the day from one portion of our works to another; yet the occasions arise, not only when we have these floods, but when we have high tides, in which our manufactory is completely and entirely separated from our wharf, and that is how the high tides to which I have referred affect wharfingers,—manufacturers along the southern shore.

"We distinguish the floods from the high tides. If we have a strong westerly wind, for instance, blowing down the river, sometimes its direction is suddenly reversed to due east, and we have it blowing up the river; if that occurs at the time of high spring tides, then we have an overflow over the banks, and all our low localities are flooded; but we very often have in Lambeth ordinary high tides, and even then one portion of our works is shut off from communication with another. We have also on the southern shore a large extent of mud banks. The acreage of these is far greater than on the northern shore; and with regard to those districts immediately adjoining these mud banks, medical evidence will be given to-day to the commission showing that these localities are never free from many and very serious cases of fever. That is a point which will come more within

the province of the medical officer of Lambeth. It has appeared to us that the only remedy for the mud banks, at any rate, would be an embankment on the southern shore. Then again we need improved communications. Of course upon this question I am simply giving my individual opinion. That opinion undoubtedly is, that, taking that portion of the southern shore from Westminster to London Bridge, we do not require increased facilities for traffic. A new street is at present being constructed, which is known by the name of the Southwark Improvement; that is brought, I believe, quite to Westminster Bridge. A railway is also being constructed from Charing Cross to London Bridge; and my own opinion is that that portion of the southern side will then be well provided with the means for traffic, with certain small improvements which would necessarily be carried out. But when we come higher up than Westminster Bridge the case presents altogether a different aspect. I will divide the portion from Westminster to Vauxhall into two sections. I will take first from Westminster Bridge to Lambeth Palace, there we have a roadway about half the distance; running parallel with the river; the other half is only a footway. The consequence is that all the traffic coming from Westminster and from the western districts to Lambeth has to traverse the whole extent of the Westminster Road to Maudslay's manufactory, round Hercules Buildings, and then down the whole extent of Church Street to get to High Street, Lambeth, and the wharf property there. That distance is a little more than half a mile. If the new street is opened from Lambeth Palace to Westminster that distance would be shortened one-half. If that is an inconvenience at the present time, it will be greatly aggravated next year. A new bridge is at present being constructed at Lambeth; it will be opened, we are given to understand, next year. All the traffic from Belgravia and Pimlico which is directed to Southwark and to the South Eastern Railway would, if that street were opened, come over Lambeth Bridge, and then there would be a direct line of communication from Lambeth Bridge to the South-Eastern Railway, through the new street which is being constructed. Then if I take the other section from Lambeth Palace to Vauxhall Bridge, the case is quite as bad, if not worse. There is an enormous amount of traffic going to the Nine Elms railway station. All that traffic from Westminster and even from Waterloo Bridge, and from all the manufactories in that district, has to take one or two courses in order to get to the Nine Elms station; either through Lambeth Walk and Vauxhall Walk, or through High Street and Princes Street. Those are the two directions in which the traffic is taken. Now the average width of the one route, through High Street and Princes Street, is something like, taking the whole extent, pathway and roadway, 22 or 23 feet. The other route is Vauxhall Walk and Lambeth Walk, and the average width of Vauxhall Walk, including pathways, is about 28 or 30 feet.

The traffic which goes through those streets is something enormous; it is not traffic by which we are benefited, but it is through traffic from other parts of the metropolis to the Nine Elms station. Just now the goods stations at Nine Elms are being enlarged, and the traffic is of course greatly increasing, so that the difficulties which we have in communications will be aggravated every year. It is not an uncommon thing for a stoppage to occur in Princes Street and again in Vauxhall Walk for ten minutes or a quarter of an hour at a time, with traffic brought, not from our manufactories, but from distant parts going to the Nine Elms railway station. Of

course that would be remedied by an embankment from Vauxhall Bridge or Nine Elms straight up to Lambeth Church, and from Lambeth Church the traffic would go down the new street which is proposed to be constructed. So that the Commissioners will gather from what I have said that my opinion is, that from Westminster Bridge to London Bridge we want simply a solid embankment, something which will prevent the floodings, and affect but to a very slight degree the wharf property (the only effect generally would be, that it would give to the wharf property a considerable piece of land in front of the wharves); but that from Westminster Bridge upwards to Battersea and Nine Elms we want an embankment, and also a new street. Whether that new street should be constructed on the embankment, or whether it should be constructed by widening an existing thoroughfare which runs parallel with the river, is, of course, a question upon which I can hardly offer an opinion; it is an engineering question. It can be made either by a road on the top of an embankment, or by widening the existing narrow thoroughfares which run at the back of the wharf property. Of course the Commission will see that I have assumed at once that any embankment to meet the evils of which we complain must be of greater extent than the embankment on the northern side which it is proposed should commence at Westminster Bridge; but the Commission will bear in mind this fact, that, with the exception of a very small portion indeed on the northern side, between the Houses of Parliament and the Penitentiary, the whole of the northern side is really embanked up to Chelsea; so that though the proposed embankment is to commence at Westminster, it is embanked up to Chelsea, with the exception of a very small portion of the northern shore exactly opposite Lambeth Palace. But if a plan were carried out such as I have suggested, which would interfere very little indeed with the wharf property, the expense would be very small in comparison with that of the northern embankment. I have seen some short reports of the evidence which was given before the Commission on the previous occasion, and I notice that a query was suggested as to whether or not the evil of which we complain on the southern shore would be remedied by heightening existing wharf walls. Now it appears to me that all the money so expended would be completely thrown away. Difficulties at once present themselves. The first is this:—You have the difficulty of dealing with those open docks and ways, which are ten or twelve in number, taking only the distance from Westminster Bridge to Battersea. To alter those ways in the manner proposed would be interfering to a great extent with the existing thoroughfares, which could not possibly be done unless in connection with a new street. Then you have another difficulty, namely, that it would really involve an entire re-construction. During the last day or two I have gone up the river from Westminster to Battersea, and I have observed what no one can fail to observe who goes up it, that it would involve an entire reconstruction of the whole of the present wharf walls. In many cases they are simply wooden walls, and where they are brick walls they are so old and of such bad construction that the tide now forces its way through them; and even in many cases the wharfingers have raised the flooring of their wharves, and allowed the tide to force its way underneath into the street at the back. And if that is so now, and if it would involve a reconstruction of those wharf walls even under the circumstances which exist at the present time, it would be certain that that reconstruction will be still

more necessary when you have what indeed is part and parcel of the northern scheme, namely, the dredging. Inevitably, then, even supposing that the wharf walls were stronger than they are now, it would materially affect them. But looking at it as it is now, any attempt to patch the thing up by putting a few courses of brickwork over the existing wharf walls would appear to me to utterly and entirely fail to meet the great evils of which we complain. It certainly would not meet the evils of flooding; but even if it would, are we to be left to the evils consequent upon the mud banks? The medical evidence which will be given will show that they are of a most pestilential character; and certainly if you raised the existing walls even two or three feet, you would still leave us with all the evils consequent on the mud banks. Then again we should be still left as we were with relation to the question of improved communications. I cannot lay before this Commission at the present time any particulars as to the amount of traffic going through those narrow streets, but it is very great; at any rate there is no inhabitant of that district but will say that it is a large and increasing traffic, and that some provision must speedily be made for it. I do not think there can be any doubt that an embankment will remove the evils of which we complain. I think that no other course will remove them; and if there are some doubts upon that question, we really think that we have a right to ask that we shall have an embankment, with the general advantages which, doubtless, will result from it. We pay a very large proportion to the fund from which the northern embankment is to be defrayed. I believe that on the southern side, consequent upon the extensive manufactories which there are there, we actually pay half the sum derived from the coal tax. It would be poor satisfaction to us, who are manufacturers on the southern side, to see a large work being carried out on the northern side to which we were contributing, and from which we were claiming no benefit. Our firm pay in coal tax between 500*l.* and 600*l.* a year, which we shall be paying, of course, for the next ten or the next fifteen years, and we shall continue to be impeded in our business and manufactory through these floodings, unless these improvements are carried out. Those are the chief points which occur to me.

Mr. John Lightfoot gave the following description of his plan:—

Firstly, to provide a suitable embankment; secondly, to improve the land traffic; thirdly, to improve the waterway traffic; fourthly, to purify the river; fifthly, to improve the wharves; sixthly, that the works should be executed without any special taxation; seventhly, that such an income should be obtained as would liquidate the debts, and provide funds for further improvements at a future period. Firstly, with respect to the embankment, I propose that as it has now been determined that the river shall be embanked, that while providing for the proper carrying out of such works of really public utility as the importance of the subject requires, the opportunity of redeeming the character of London from being one of the ugliest cities in the world should not be lost. To accomplish this end, I propose to construct the embankments, the same to be extended hereafter as far as the progressive spirit of the age may render it requisite and necessary. The construction would be of brickwork faced with granite or stone, and raised to a level of six feet above high-water mark. Upon this embankment structures would be erected to a general level approximating as near as possible with the various bridges, and extending on

the north side from the Tower to Westminster, and on the south side from Princes Street, Rotherhithe, to Westminster Bridge. The portion from the Tower to London Bridge would be carried on columns, at any rate, immediately opposite the Custom House; the other, together with the portion extending on the north side, to near Blackfriars Bridge, and also returning from thence on the south side to Princes Street, would be used for warehouse purposes; the remaining portion, excepting where fronting any public or other building which might be considered of sufficient architectural merit or importance to leave open to the river, would be devoted for the purposes of retail trade, with warehouses in the rear abutting upon the docks. Immediately opposite the Temple I propose to erect a building, to serve for the purposes of a hall and club, with the necessary offices, to be presented to the benchers and members of the inns of the Temple, as a compensation for any injury they might be supposed to suffer in consequence of the embankment. To break the monotony of the sky-line, the buildings shown at the extremities of the wing and in the centre, are proposed to be erected, which, being surmounted by sculpture, would present an agreeable appearance. In the centre I propose should be an arch dedicated to Justice, and flanked by lesser buildings used respectively as a clock-tower and police observatory. The appearance of the building from the garden would be similar to that from the river, excepting there would be a colonnade of a convenient width to permit of promenade to be taken during the wet weather. The shops would also be protected by a similar colonnade, and would be fitted with every modern convenience. The warehouses would likewise be protected by a covered way, where the width of the embankment would permit such to be done, for loading and unloading; the smoke would be conveyed as is herein-after described. I further propose that other police-stations and observatories shall be erected at convenient distances along the entire route of the embankment, and connected by telegraphic wires with every station throughout London; and also to provide for the inhabitants of the low districts bordering the south side of the river, such institutions as may be of an improving and beneficial character, namely, libraries, reading-rooms, baths, wash-houses, and places for public worship. Owing to its enormous population, and the great extent of land which it covers, London, with all its parks, does not provide for many thousands of its people such healthy promenades as the Boulevards at Paris offer to the inhabitants of that city; I therefore propose to create a waterside promenade, which, if thought desirable, might in places be planted with shrubs and trees, with fountains at short intervals; but the object in view is more to provide a space of sufficient length and breadth to permit of the full enjoyment of what would, undoubtedly, become a favourite place of public resort. The surface would be covered with either fine shells or gravel, it not being proposed that vehicles or horses should be permitted thereon. The roadway in the rear to the warehouses would have a tramway of iron, and be paved in the usual way. It is also suggested that, inasmuch as preaching in the open air is so much practised, structures termed crosses should be erected for the convenience of the preachers.

Secondly, to improve the land traffic. The roadway would extend on the north side from the Tower to Westminster Bridge, forming a direct line and connecting the two extremities (east and west) of London on the north side of the river, and would be approached from the various bridges,

and also from some of the adjacent streets. In connexion herewith it is also further proposed to form a new line of street directly opposite Saint Paul's Cathedral, which would form a direct communication with Islington and its neighbourhood, and also a continuation of New Earl Street, Cannon Street, extending on one side to the Mansion House, and on the other to the embankment. A certain portion is considered to be necessary to render the roadway effectual in relieving the streets of some portion of the traffic, as, unless the access thereto is made convenient, it would be an useless improvement. On the south side the roadway would extend from Princes Street to Westminster Bridge, and would be approached similarly to the north side by the bridges and streets leading thereto. Stairs would be formed at convenient intervals leading to the promenade and wharf roads. It is proposed to continue the roadway to Princes Street, which, if the park proposed to be formed in that quarter is carried out, would form a good carriage-way thereto, and on looking at the maps, it will be observed to be much required.

Thirdly, to improve the waterway traffic. It is proposed to form docks extending nearly along the entire line of embankment. The river immediately in front of the locks would be dredged out sufficient to permit of the entrance of vessels at all times of the tide. The occasional flow of water from the locks between the tides, when low, would tend much to keep the channel clear, which in carrying out a scheme of this nature would perhaps be all that was necessary, it being supposed that the water would not be disturbed so much, by reason of there being fewer steamboats, as the land communication would doubtless effectually compete with and drive off the greater number, at least those which plied between London and Westminster Bridges. The interference with the present wharves, the underpinning of the river walls, the probable rebuilding of many, and the compensation to the owners, has been stated to be a great reason for not undertaking a general system of embankment. It is therefore proposed not to interfere with them in any way, excepting as hereinafter stated, and when absolutely necessary for communicating with the land, and as they are easily approached at certain times of the tide, at present it would be rendered unnecessary by the confinement of the water within the embankment. The gates of the different locks would be worked by steam power, which would also render aid to vessels in their entering.

Note.—I believe that in consequence of the proposed construction of the sewer in connexion with the embankment, the entrance of vessels could not take place until a certain time of the tide.

Fourthly, to purify the river. It is proposed to construct in the embankment, receptacles into which the sewage would be conveyed by extending the present sewers (or in such other way as would present itself as being the best) in the following way:—The receptacle nearest the dock wall would first receive the sewage, which when it had obtained a certain height, would allow the liquid to drain off into the other receiver; this receiver would be divided at one end by open cast-iron partitions, between which would be placed, in vertical layers—pebbles, coarse gravel, and charcoal; from this portion it would (having become somewhat clear) be pumped into the docks for the purpose of creating a current. To prevent the water in the docks becoming stagnant, channels would be formed through the embankment, or the locks opened, so as to permit of a change of water taking place. The receiver would be con-

structed with outlets near the top, as a precaution against violent storms, and which would be above high-water mark. These receivers would be ventilated by means of a channel which would be connected with the chimney shaft of engine. The first receptacle of the sewage would also have a partition, but of brickwork, with an opening at the bottom permitting the influx of the semi-solid sewage for the purpose of being pumped into vessels constructed for that especial purpose (with air-tight holds), for conveying it away. The vessels would likewise be fitted with pumps and steam power, which would also assist in their propulsion and navigation. By adopting these means it is expected that the sewers in the lower districts might be kept constantly clear, and would be entirely shut off from the action of the tide. This becomes necessary, inasmuch as the formation of docks will entirely destroy the drainage of the low district. The sewers being continually full of water, the solid matter would not be carried away; and again, as it is stated that many of the houses are below high-water mark, they would be kept in a continual damp and unwholesome state. It therefore becomes imperative to contrive some means of preventing such an evil attending so important an improvement. The chimney shaft would be treated in an ornamental style, or, rather, monumental character, and would be connected with the furnace of steam-engine by an underground shaft. The smoke from the various buildings would be conveyed into a larger flue, as shown in the sections, and, together with the ventilation flue of sewage receiver, would be brought directly under the furnace; and by means of pipes the smoke and gases would be conveyed into the furnace and there burnt. In proposing the foregoing scheme for the collection of the sewage, it has been considered as a matter of the greatest importance that it should, if possible, be returned to the land. That it might be done is indisputable; it therefore becomes a question with the public whether it shall be done. That the sewage is valuable as a fertilizer has been a recognized fact for years, and it therefore resolves itself into a question of the cost of producing an article that would be so valuable to agriculturists. The accompanying comparative statement shows the opinion of some of the most eminent chemists and agriculturists of the day as to the value of the sewage. Professor Liebig states, the price of nitrogen only produced by 100,000 persons is 12,000*l.* per annum, which, reckoning the population of London at 3,000,000, would produce the sum of 360,000*l.* per annum. Mr. Edwin Chadwick estimates the value of the sewage at 1*l.* 17*s.* 0*d.* per head, which would produce 5,500,000*l.* per annum. Professor Johnson states the value to be, for every 100,000 of the population, 223,000*l.* which would amount to 6,690,000*l.* per annum. Mr. Lawes estimates the value of the dry only at 6*s.* per head, which would be 900,000*l.* per annum. It therefore appears to be a subject demanding the greatest consideration, whether it cannot be made to contribute towards the cost of the embankment.

Fifthly, with regard to the improvement of the wharves—I would suggest that they should be placed under the surveillance of a commission (entirely distinct from the Metropolitan Board of Works), aided by professional gentlemen, and that an Act of Parliament should be framed to regulate their construction, with power to condemn them when in a bad or dangerous state, and also to grant monetary assistance for the purpose of effecting improvements, to be returned in the form of rent chargeable upon the premises. I would suggest that the works should be carried out under

the direction of a special commission appointed by the Government, the money to be borrowed for the purpose, and repaid from the profits arising from the rental of the buildings and the sale of the sewage.

Sixthly, with regard to the execution of the works—I would propose, for the purpose of expediting as much as possible their execution, they should be carried out in sections by different contractors, under the direction of a commission appointed for that particular purpose.

And, seventhly, the Government to provide the money; and the profits arising from the rentals of the various buildings, and the produce of the sale of the sewage, after a sum had been set aside therefrom every year as a sinking fund towards the liquidation of the debt, should be devoted to further improvement of the banks of the Thames. And for the greater convenience of the traffic, a system should be determined upon for the regulation of those vessels entering and lying at anchor in the river-way. No vessel to be allowed to come into the pool or above unless about immediately to discharge or take in a cargo. The wharf from London Bridge to the Tower to be devoted to the sea-going vessels, that now load and discharge from there.

ESTIMATE OF COST.

Estimating the total of cost at 200 <i>l.</i> per lineal foot, the portions extending from London Bridge to Westminster Bridge would amount to the sum of	£	£
For the purchase of Southwark and Waterloo Bridges	—	5,200,000
The rentals of buildings averaging 100 <i>l.</i> each day, which would amount to the sum of	—	900,000
Estimating the net value of the sewage at	136,800	—
	351,200	—
Being 8 per cent. upon the gross outlay	488,000	6,100,000

In conclusion, I would add that the object in the design has been not to injure any class for the benefit of another; and I think that by providing the commodious docks extending nearly the whole frontage of the river, the wharfingers, as the parties most directly interested, have had their interests studied, and would have their conveniences vastly improved for the purposes of commerce. The inhabitants of the south side would be relieved from the nuisance of tide-locked sewers and occasional floodings, and would have given to them delightful recreation ground and beneficial institutions. The crowded thoroughfares of the city would be relieved, and the sewage, so great a source of complaint, effectually prevented from any longer contaminating our noble river, and turned to the only proper and good purpose, namely, returning to the earth from whence it came. The river would present an appearance that could not be equalled by any other city in the world, and portions might be of such a character that the favoured cities of Italy could not surpass. Those are all the remarks I have written, and I shall be happy to answer any questions which the commissioners may think proper to put.

STATEMENT of PLANS and DESIGNS for the EMBANKMENT of the RIVER THAMES, SURREY SIDE, presented for the consideration of the COMMISSIONERS.

Mr. W. AUSTIN proposed a 30 feet or 60 feet embankment wall, with conduits, into which all sewers may discharge from each side the length of river fronts, including drives and footways, but no railway docks between embankment walls and shore banks. The extent of encroachment on river varying with commercial requirements, and the estimated expense varying with width of walls and tunnels, and length of work executed. As a mode of defraying expense, he proposed the sale or lease of river frontages, producing 10 per cent. minimum profit.

Mr. H. H. BIRD proposed a new river frontage between Nine Elms, Vauxhall, and Southwark Bridges, with an intercepting sewer. A public road 50 feet wide from Lambeth Church to Bankside, Southwark. No railway with docks. Inside embankment from Bishop's Walk to Bankside, with entrance gates 35 feet wide. The extent of encroachment on river to be 90 feet at Lambeth Church, 160 feet at Westminster, 2 arches of Waterloo Bridge, $1\frac{1}{2}$ of Blackfriars Bridge. The estimated expense 469,000*l*.

Mr. T. H. HARTLEY proposed an embankment in midstream from London Bridge to Battersea Bridge. No roadway, but railways on both sides, joining with London and South-Western and Great Western. The estimated expense being 5,000,000*l*.

Mr. T. MORRIS proposed a causeway on piers 100 feet apart from Nine Elms to Southwark, crossing Vauxhall and Westminster Bridges at a level, and passing under Hungerford, Waterloo, Charing-Cross Railway, Blackfriars, and Southwark, curtailing the shore 150 feet at Fore Street, Lambeth, and 80 feet at Bankside, near Southwark Bridge. Roadway 60 feet wide; no railway. The tide flows beneath the causeway, up to the old limits, leaving the superficial area of the river undiminished. The extent of encroachment on the river to be 100 feet at Westminster, 1 arch of Waterloo Bridge, 2 arches of Blackfriars Bridge, and abutment of Southwark Bridge. The estimated expense 500,000*l*.

Mr. H. H. FULTON proposed an embankment from Victoria Suspension Bridge to Southwark Bridge, curtailing the shore at Fore Street, Lambeth, 90 feet; with land set apart for building from Hungerford Bridge to midway between Waterloo and Blackfriars Bridge. Roadway, low-level road 60 feet wide from Chelsea to Vauxhall, with high-level road from Vauxhall Bridge to Lambeth. From Lambeth to Southwark 80 feet wide, making a new street to the rear of the premises at Stangate from Lambeth Church. No railway. Small dock opposite Richmond Terrace; dock 90 feet wide between Hungerford and Waterloo Bridges, outside present embankment; 2 docks of 100 feet wide outside the river side, premises of the Commercial Road; 1 dock of 60 feet wide between Blackfriars Bridge and the Falcon Draw Dock. Extent of encroachment on river 110 feet at Westminster Bridge, 1 pier of Hungerford Bridge, 3 arches of Waterloo Bridge, $1\frac{1}{2}$ arches of Blackfriars Bridge, and abutment of Southwark Bridge. Estimated expense from Westminster to Blackfriars Bridge 400,000*l*.

Mr. H. TURNER proposed an embankment commencing at Lambeth New Bridge, terminating at the river frontage at Hungerford.

Mr. W. A. BROOKS proposed four quays or line of embankment: 1st, from Fore Street, Lambeth, to Westminster Bridge; 2nd, between Westminster Bridge and Bankside, Southwark; 3rd, Off St. Saviour's Dock, Bermondsey; 4th, from Thames Tunnel to King and Queen Stairs, Rotherhithe. No roadway, railway, or dock. Extent of encroachment on river, 100 feet at Lambeth Palace, present river frontage at Westminster Bridge, 80 feet at Hungerford Bridge, 1 arch of Waterloo Bridge, present abutment of Blackfriars, and present river frontage at Emerson Street, Southwark. Estimated expense 167,492*l*. from Lambeth Church to Bankside; 44,880*l*. for the Bermondsey Quay; 48,620*l*. for the Rotherhithe Quay, exclusive of all purchase of property and compensation.

Mr. A. GILES proposed an embankment from Vauxhall Bridge to Lambeth New Bridge, thence roadway or embankment 60 feet wide to Bankside; encroaches 40 feet on present river frontage at Fore Street. Roadway, new road from Nine Elms Station to Lambeth Church, between the railway and Princes Street. No railway. Docks between his roadway and the premises at Stangate, and from Westminster Bridge to Bankside, between his roadway and the present river frontage, 8 entrances 25 feet wide. Extent of encroachment on river, $1\frac{1}{2}$ arches of Vauxhall Bridge, 150 feet at Westminster Bridge, 2 arches of Waterloo Bridge, 2 arches of Blackfriars Bridge, and present shore at Bankside. Estimated expense 400,000*l*.

Mr. T. E. WELLER proposed a solid embankment from abutment of Westminster Bridge to present line of river frontage above Blackfriars Bridge. No roadway, railway, or dock. Extent of encroachment on river, halfway to first pier of Hungerford Bridge; 1 arch of Waterloo Bridge.

Mr. J. FAIRFAX proposed a solid embankment from London Gasworks to Bankside. Roadway along the embankment of 50 feet, with 20 feet of footpath, as far as Stangate, and then out on the embankment again from Westminster Bridge to Bankside. No railway or dock. Estimated expense 450,000*l*.

Mr. J. LIGHTFOOT proposed an embankment at Vauxhall Bridge, parallel with present river frontage to Lambeth Church, with roadway in front of all the premises to Rotherhithe, having docks between the roadway and said premises to London Bridge. Also a new bridge opposite the Horse Guards, and new street to join York Road and the present site of College Street. The roadway in the length of the embankment from Westminster, eastward. No railway; the docks would extend nearly the whole length of embankment. The extent of encroachment on river, $\frac{1}{2}$ of first arch of Vauxhall Bridge, 50 feet outside of river frontage at Fore Street, 200 feet at Westminster Bridge, 1 pier at Hungerford Bridge, 2 arches of Waterloo Bridge, $1\frac{1}{2}$ of Blackfriars Bridge, 150 feet from Bankside, $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 arch of Southwark Bridge, 1 arch of London Bridge, and generally 60 feet in front of all water-side premises of south bank in the Pool. The estimated expense 5,200,000*l*. Mr. Lightfoot proposed that it be built by the Government, who would receive the amount of the rentals and the sums arising from the sale of sewage.

Mr. W. PAICE proposed an embankment from Westminster Bridge to London Bridge, about 70 feet wide, with dock under roadway part of the distance. Raised roadway on wrought iron girders, from midway between Waterloo and Hungerford, terminating at Southwark. No railroad. The dock to be midway between Waterloo and Hungerford, terminating at Southwark, with 8 openings 40 feet wide.

Mr. J. F. SMITH (Belvedere) proposed a solid embankment from Westminster Bridge to Blackfriars; new road of 80 feet wide from Waterloo to Blackfriars, following the line of the northern embankment. Roadway 80 feet throughout, and quay of 30 feet wide outside the roadway. No railway or docks. The extent of encroachment on river, 100 feet at Westminster Bridge, 240 feet at Hungerford, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ arch of Waterloo Bridge. The estimated expense 227,815*l.*, not including the filling in of wharves.

Mr. F. W. SHIELDS proposed an embankment from Vauxhall to Westminster Bridges, the portion next Vauxhall Bridge to midway between the Bridge and Lambeth Pier not being constructed at present. Takes off 50 feet from projecting wharf-line at Upper Fore Street, extends out 40 feet at Lambeth Pier, goes from thence straight to New Westminster Bridge abutment. No embankment from Westminster to Southwark, but a fixed river boundary corresponding with the abutments of the existing bridges and with the general line of wharf frontage. Roadway continuing and widening Vauxhall Row, at the east end of the London Gasworks, by removing the small buildings on the south side of Princes Street, and turning it on to the embankment below the Flour Mill, forming road 80 feet wide by river side, from thence to Westminster Bridge, removing that portion of Upper Fore Street that stands westward of Broad Street, and the portion of Lower Fore Street, between Broad Street and Lambeth Church, continuing the road in front of Stangate to Westminster Bridge, leaving a large portion of reclaimed ground between the road and the present wharves. No railway or docks. The extent of encroachment on river abutment of Vauxhall Bridge, 70 feet from the Bishop's Walk, abutment of Westminster Bridge, abutment of Hungerford Bridge, abutment of Waterloo Bridge, abutment of Blackfriars Bridge, and abutment of Southwark Bridge. The estimated expense 120,000*l.* for works of construction, not including compensation for property disturbed.

Mr. W. CARPMAEL proposed, 1, a solid embankment from Vauxhall Bridge to London Bridge on the lines suggested by Mr. Walker, but for the embankment to pass under the bridges in place of having accesses at the bridges as proposed by Mr. Walker, with travelling cranes over the roadway to water-side premises. 2. Plan for regulating existing wharves and river wall to one uniform line. Roadway 50 feet wide. No railway or dock. Extent of encroachment on river abutment of Vauxhall Bridge, abutment of Westminster Bridge, 1 arch of Waterloo Bridge, 1 arch of Blackfriars Bridge, abutment of Southwark Bridge, and abutment of London Bridge.

Mr. J. CARTER proposed an embankment on both sides of the river, from Bishop's Walk to Westminster Bridge, thence 100 feet wide parallel with the river frontage, terminating at Deptford. Roadway upon arches from 50 feet upwards, a front wharf 30 feet wide, where no inlet exists, and a space for light and air 20 feet between existing buildings. Tramroad to all bridges; no dock. General encroachment of 100 feet on present line of river frontage. Estimated expense, 75,000*l.* per mile.

Mr. H. W. SICH proposed an embankment from Lambeth Church to Blackfriars Bridge, with roadway on suspension principle outside the embankment, and barge bed under roadway. From Westminster Bridge to Blackfriars Bridge, an extent of reclaimed land by embankment of 45 feet wide on the average for the use of wharfingers. Roadway 40 feet wide, raised on columns with large bed underneath it. No railway or dock. Extent of encroachment on river at Bishop's Walk 80 feet, Westminster Bridge 60 feet, Hungerford Bridge 130 feet, Waterloo Bridge 1 arch, and Blackfriars Bridge 1 arch. Estimated expense 400,000*l.*

Mr. J. GIBBS proposed an embankment from Battersea Bridge to below Southwark Bridge, cutting off the projecting point at Fore Street, Lambeth, but only recommends the present construction from Westminster to Battersea Bridge. Roadway on outer part of embankment as far as Westminster Bridge. No railway or docks. Extent of encroachment on river, 2 arches of Vauxhall Bridge, 150 feet at Westminster, $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet at Waterloo, $\frac{1}{2}$ an arch of Blackfriars Bridge, abutment of Southwark Bridge, and widening the river at certain parts of Lambeth.

Messrs. ALLEN proposed an embankment on both sides, making a channel of 700 feet wide and 6 feet depth at low-water. Space reclaimed available for building purposes. Roadway 75 feet wide on each embankment.

Mr. C. HENMAN proposed a solid embankment, the exception being shallow docks for timber floats only; the general level of the embankment and road to be 4 feet above Trinity high-water mark. Roadway, a high-level road for main through traffic 60 feet wide, connecting the Borough side of London Bridge, Southwark, Blackfriars, Waterloo, and Westminster, at the level of these bridges. A low-level road 80 feet wide, in connection with the principal thoroughfares in the rear; and also in connection with warehouses to be built on line of frontage. A street tramway on the low-level road. Shallow docks for floats of timber under roadway of embankment in front of present timber yards only. Extent of encroachment on river to be furnished hereafter. Westminster half of first arch, Waterloo

2 arches, Blackfriars 2 arches, and Southwark 60 feet northward of south abutment. The estimated expense to compensate owners, form the embankment and upper roadway, and erect warehouses, shops, and houses according to design, 2,750,000*l.* The mode of defraying expenses was as follows:—Estimates that the rental to be derived, if my plan is carried out, will be 80,000*l.* per annum, and that the capital could be raised, and this great national improvement effected on the tontine principle, without any ultimate actual expense to the Government or metropolis; provided a minimum dividend of say 3 per cent. is guaranteed to the nominees of the shareholders for their lives. The tontine should be divided into 80 classes to suit all ages, and in 100*l.* shares, so that the surviving nominee in each class would obtain a property in perpetuity of 100*l.* to 1,000*l.* per annum, whilst every other nominee would obtain a gradually increasing annuity during his life, varying from the guaranteed minimum up to 500*l.* per annum. The same principle could also be applied to a similar construction on the north side of the Thames; and in that case the coal duties, intended to be appropriated to its construction, might form the guarantee fund, and relieve the Government from any responsibility.

 ORDNANCE SURVEY.

Report of the Progress of the Ordnance Survey and Topographical Dépôt to the 31st December, 1861.

A COMMITTEE of the House of Commons was appointed last session, of which Viscount Bury was chairman,—“to inquire into the expediency of extending the Cadastral survey to those portions of the United Kingdom which have been surveyed upon the scale of one inch to the mile only.” In their report the committee state that they have received much important information from the witnesses who have been examined, but that “having regard to the advanced period of the session, they have agreed to report the evidence taken up to the present time, and to recommend that the committee shall be re-appointed in the next session of Parliament.” In consequence of the reduction in the amount of the grant for the survey for 1861-62 by the sum of 20,000*l.*, 180 surveyors and draftsmen were obliged to be discharged, and of the remaining number (1,357), 340 have been constantly employed upon the surveys in the south of England and Wales, required for the execution of the works for the defence of our naval arsenals, and for the proposed central military dépôt at Cannock Chase. The progress of the survey in Scotland and the north of England has, consequently, been comparatively slow, and only in proportion to the number of surveyors and draftsmen employed.

The surveys, however, which have been made round London, and in Hampshire, Kent, Surrey, and elsewhere, have all been made so as to form part of the national survey; and consequently, if the committee of the House of Commons should report in favour of the extension of the Cadastral survey over the whole of England and Wales, and Parliament should sanction it, the work now executed for military purposes will form an integral portion of the national survey, and the money now expended upon it will go to diminish the cost of the general survey, and we shall, in fact, have been only making progress in the south instead of in the north of England. The survey of the Isle of Wight has, in compliance with the recommendation contained in the report of the committee of the House of Commons, been finished. But in consequence of this division of our surveying force, the counties of Northumberland and Cumberland are not yet finished, and a great part of another year must elapse before they can be. In Scotland the survey of Forfarshire is finished, and that of Perth-

shire and Buteshire will be completed next year. The triangulation of Kincardineshire and Argyllshire has been commenced preparatory to the detailed survey of these two counties.

The trigonometrical survey of the United Kingdom is now completed.

The sum of 1,000*l.* was granted this year with a view to connect our triangulation with that of France and Belgium, as part of a great combined operation between the geometricians of England, France, Belgium, Prussia, and Russia, for forming a complete triangulation from the west of Ireland to the Oural Mountains, and obtaining the data for measuring an arc of parallel 75° in length along the parallel of 52° .

For carrying the triangulation across the Channel we used our stations at St. Peter's near Margate, Coldham near Folkestone, and Fairlight near Hastings, and connected these three stations with Gravelines, Mont Couple near Wissant, and Mont Lambert near Boulogne. From these three last stations we observed a station at Harlettes on the road between Boulogne and St. Omer, and from this were able to observe Cassel and Dunkirk, and from these the station at Mt. Kemmel in Belgium near Ypres. The triangle, Dunkirk, Cassel, and Mt. Kemmel, is common to the triangulations of France and Belgium; and we have now made this same triangle a portion of the extended triangulation of England. Thus we shall have the sides of this triangle determined independently from the bases measured in England, France, and Belgium; and as there will probably be some small difference in the length of the sides thus determined, I have proposed that a direct comparison of the standards of length used in the measurement of the bases should be made, and thus to remove one possible source of error; and as we have at Southampton a house built expressly for the purpose of making such comparisons, that the standards should be sent here to be compared.

The map of Ireland, on the scale of one inch to a mile, in outline, was completed during the past year.

At the request of the Government of South Australia, and with the sanction of her Majesty's Government, a 10-foot standard bar was made, and compared with the 10-foot standard bar of the Ordnance Survey. On this standard bar we have set off the length of the fathom, yard, foot, and half foot, and it will probably become the standard of length in that colony, as the lengths set off on it are derived by direct comparison from the standard yard of this country. It is greatly to be desired that each of our colonies should provide itself with a similar standard, so that all measures taken in them may be strictly comparable. In making the numerous comparisons necessary for the exact determination of the length of the ten feet on this standard, and the intermediate subdivisions, it was highly satisfactory to find that in consequence of the peculiar construction given to the bar-room in which the comparisons have been made, the alteration in the temperature throughout the twenty-four hours, and during great daily changes in the temperature of the external air, has scarcely been appreciable, whilst there is a steady retrograde or advance in the temperature due to the change of the season.

The publication by photo-zincography of the fac-simile of the ancient MS. which appeared in the Report for 1859, and of the detailed account of the process published in 1860 in a small pamphlet, with the notices which have appeared in the press, have spread throughout the world a knowledge of this art; and the publication last year of the fac-simile of

the part of Domesday Book relating to Cornwall has given rise to a very generally expressed desire on the part of the gentlemen of almost every county in England for her Majesty's Government to allow the whole of Domesday Book to be published, county by county, in the same manner that the part relating to Cornwall has been. A definite line of action was therefore submitted for the approval of the Lords of her Majesty's Treasury, to be followed with reference to the publication of this great national and inestimably valuable book, by which the public might be gratified, and at the same time her Majesty's Government not put to any expense thereby.

Domesday Book contains the great survey of England made by William the Conqueror, in which the name of the owner of every manor is given, with the quantity of land in each manor, and the quantity of meadow, pasture, wood, &c. in it, stated; and it is an interesting fact, and highly gratifying to me, to find that the art of photo-zincography, which we have discovered and applied for the purpose of making the detailed topographical plans of the kingdom, has led to my being able to produce at the same time the fac-simile of the most ancient survey and terrier of the kingdom, and which is such a document as no other country in the world possesses.

The publication of the edition of Domesday Book in 1783, for which types had to be specially made, is said to have cost the Government 38,000*l.*, and copies of it are so expensive and so rare, that few can either buy one or even refer to one, and the types were destroyed by a fire in 1808; but by adopting the arrangement of publishing the fac-simile of the work in parts, any one can purchase the part in which he is more particularly interested at a small cost, whilst the Government will not be put to any cost whatever.

The value of photo-zincography is also felt in every topographical establishment; and at the request of the Secretary of State for India in Council, we have recently instructed one non-commissioned officer and one sapper of her Majesty's Indian Engineers in this art, to qualify them to practise it in the office of the Surveyor-General of India.

But we have recently discovered a method of producing a negative impression on paper, from which a single copy of a deed or other document can be printed on parchment in permanent ink, and thus we can avoid the necessity of transferring the negative copies to zinc or stone before printing. This art has been called photo-papyrography. The survey in England and Scotland has been extended, and that of Ireland has been completed.

CHARITABLE FUNDS.

Returns made by the Official Trustees of Charitable Funds on the 1st day of February, 1862, in pursuance of the Statutes 23 & 24 Vic., c. 136, s. 18. (Feb. 10, 1862.) (18.)

THE total amount of the capital, stock, shares, and securities, transferred to the official trustees of charitable funds, in the year ending the 31st day of December, 1861, was, Consolidated 3 per cent. Annuities, 233,260*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.*; Reduced 3 per cent., 14,154*l.* 8*s.* 3*d.*; New,

44,061*l.* 7*s.* 5*d.*; New 2½, 978*l.* 10*s.* 7*d.*; India 5 per cent. Stock, 1,000*l.*; Bank Stock, 31*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.*; 5 per cent. perpetual preference shares stock on the Great Northern Railway Company, 300*l.* The aggregate amount of such securities held was, Consolidated 3 per cent. Annuities, 815,754*l.*; Reduced, 89,151*l.*; New, 143,457*l.*; New 2½, 21,405*l.*; New 3½, 165*l.*; India 5 per cent. Stock, 2,369*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*; Bank Stock, 5,420*l.* Debentures: London and North-Western Railway Company, 3,000*l.*; Preference Stock, Great Northern Railway, 300*l.*

LOCAL GOVERNMENT ACT.

Fourth Report on the Execution of the Local Government Act, 1858.

THE Local Government Act, 1858, has been adopted in twenty-seven places, principally in Yorkshire, and partially adopted to complete local Acts and to meet local requirements in ten places. Sanctions were given under the provisions of the Local Government Act, 1858, for the mortgage of rates in many cases for such purposes as drainage, water-supply, street improvement, sewerage works, deodorizing works, kerbing, and paving footways, &c.

CHARITABLE DONATIONS AND BEQUESTS.

Seventeenth Annual Report of the Commissioners of Charitable Donations and Bequests for Ireland.

ON the 31st December, 1861, the amount to the credit of the Commissioners in the Bank of Ireland was 216,794*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.*, viz., Government Stock, 216,417*l.* 7*s.* 1*d.*; in debentures and mortgage, 376*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.* The cash account showed a balance due to charities of 1,405*l.* 7*s.* 5*d.* On the 31st December, 1860, a great variety of trusts were placed under the guardianship of the Commissioners, among which were the following:—For the purchase of spinning wheels, marriage portions, poor widows, purchase of provisions on Christmas Eve, the ministers of Holy Cross, six poor people, dinner on Christmas Day to inmates of Wicklow gaol, after death of schoolmaster and wife to the poor of Loughgall, Ulster deaf and dumb institution, pious charitable uses as the Bishop of Limerick may direct, poor Protestants, bread for Wexford poor, old man's asylum, coals for poor people of Waterford, bread and mutton on Christmas Eve to poor roomkeepers in Downpatrick, reception for servants, poor tradesmen, bread for poor, old ladies asylum, the poor, sick and indigent of different places, Roman Catholic and Protestant asylums, dispensaries, hospitals, orphan schools, charitable societies, debtors in Marshalsea, Dublin; church missionary society, Bible society, mendicity association, &c.

POOR LAW.

Annual Report of the Commissioners for Administering the Laws for Relief of the Poor in Ireland.

In the year ended 29th September, 1861, the amount of poor rate lodged was 584,548*l.*, and the amount expended, 516,769*l.*, against 454,531*l.* in 1860; the number relieved having been 203,422 in-door, and 14,008 out-door, against 170,549 in-door, and 8965 out-door in 1860.

Pauperism and expenditure in relief declined in a very rapid manner from the year 1850–51, down to the year 1858–59, but in the two succeeding years there was an increase in the average daily pauperism from 41,676 to 48,672, and in the annual relief expenditure from 413,712*l.* to 516,769*l.*, or 16·8 per cent. in the numbers relieved, and 24·9 per cent. in the expenditure.

In the year ended 29th September, 1859, a less degree of pauperism and a smaller relief expenditure were presented than in any year since the completion of all the workhouses and the full introduction of the poor law. The average daily number relieved in the workhouse in that year was 40,380 persons, and out of the workhouse, 1296; and the total relief expenditure, 413,712*l.* The average weekly cost of maintenance, exclusive of clothing, in the workhouses was 1*s.* 11½*d.*, which, taken in comparison with 2*s.* 2*d.* in 1860, 2*s.* 4½*d.* in 1861, and 2*s.* 3½*d.* the present weekly cost in 1862, shows the price of the provisions consumed by the poorer classes in Ireland to have been relatively low in 1859.

The year ended 29th September, 1860, was one of considerably increased expenditure through an increase chiefly of the cost of provisions, and, therefore, of the cost of maintenance; the average daily number of in-door paupers (41,271), not materially exceeding that of 1858–59, viz., 40,380, although the relief expenditure rose from 413,712*l.* to 454,531*l.*; and the average daily number on out-door relief having increased only from 1296 to 2001.

The commencement of 1860 was marked by a great dearth of fodder and loss of cattle in many districts of the west and south of Ireland, and may be looked at as the beginning of that state of pecuniary difficulty in which the small farmers of those districts became involved, and which has been aggravated by the unfavourable character of the two succeeding harvests.

The year ended 29th September, 1861, showed a further considerable increase both of pauperism and expenditure. In the autumn of 1860 there was a great blight of the potato, and the price of the necessaries of life became higher in 1860–61 than in any year since the famine period. The cost of maintenance in the workhouse, exclusive of clothing, rose in the course of this year from 2*s.* 2½*d.* to 2*s.* 5*d.* per head per week. The average daily number of workhouse inmates increased to 45,136; and the relief expenditure to 516,769*l.*, an increase of 62,238*l.* in comparison with that of the preceding year.

Of the year which will end 29th September, 1862, nearly six months have now passed, including what is known by long experience to be the worst part of the year. This period of twenty-five weeks has been marked, on the one hand, by a much greater failure of the potato crop than the corresponding part of 1860–61, and by a great scarcity and dearth of fuel. On the other hand, the price of food has been lower throughout than last

year, the cost of workhouse maintenance, a sure and universal index, having fallen from 2*s.* 5*d.* to 2*s.* 3½*d.*

It is sometimes urged that the degree of distress existing in Ireland is not to be ascertained from the returns of pauperism, as in a large proportion of the unions out-door relief is not afforded, and in the remainder the number so relieved is relatively very small. Under these circumstances it would certainly not be right to judge of the degree of distress generally existing in Ireland from the number receiving out-door relief. But the degree of distress, however, prevailing in Ireland at any time, we believe to be accurately indicated by the number receiving relief in the workhouses. Relief in the workhouse is freely granted, because it is known by experience to be asked for those only who are in need of it; and when the necessity for it has ceased the recipients voluntarily discharge themselves and cease to receive relief. The consequence is, that a constant change of persons takes place throughout the year in the workhouses, and a great difference in the number at different seasons of each year. If reference be made to the series of weekly summaries given at the commencement of each annual report, it will be seen that for ten years past, the season of greatest pauperism has always been the season of least employment, and of the most general prevalence of sickness—namely, the months of January and February. From the time of the commencement of more genial weather, and the resumption of agricultural employment, the workhouse lists begin to decline, and continue to do so until after the harvest operations have concluded. A gradual increase of the numbers then begins, and continues until the time of the maximum number in the ensuing year.

The time of the maximum number varies very little in different years; the variation, when it does occur, appearing to be influenced by the state of the weather. For example, in 1851-52 the maximum occurred on the 21st February; in 1852-53, on the 19th February; in 1853-54, on the 11th February; in 1854-55, on the 24th February; in 1855-56, on the 16th February; in 1856-57, on the 7th February; in 1857-58, on the 13th March; in 1858-59, on the 12th February; in 1859-60, on the 3rd March; and in 1860-61, on the 23rd March. In the present year it would appear to have occurred on the 8th March.

During the same period of ten years the rise and fall of the numbers on the out-door relief lists has followed for the most part the same law; but not with so much exactness, because the number receiving out-relief in Ireland is dependent more on the views of boards of guardians as to the safety and expediency of affording it, than on the number of the applicants, or the pressure of distress.

We are now witnessing a change occurring in a series of years, in consequence of a reverse which has taken place in the circumstances of a part of the population; and just as the state of the relief lists indicates the relative degree of pressure of distress at different seasons of the year, so it also indicates the difference in that respect between one year and another. It is true, that for the most part, and excepting cases of sickness, it is only destitution that is relieved, and that at all times there is much distress in a class above pauperism, which is unrelieved by the poor law. It may be assumed, however, that such unrelieved distress is in a constant ratio to the amount of destitution exhibited on the relief lists; inasmuch as the causes which create destitution in the one class are usually identical with the causes which create distress in the other.

The progress, therefore, not only of destitution but of distress in the last three years, may be gathered from the workhouse relief lists, which, at the present date, exhibit an increase since the spring of 1859 of about 36 per cent.

This increase, although a very serious one, does not appear to justify the alarm expressed in some quarters, that a famine analogous to that of 1846-47 is impending; and that the time of its greatest development will be in summer, the distress increasing in the meantime until it is arrested by the season of the potato harvest and corn harvest. So far from such being likely to be the case, it is our present belief, founded on the experience of past years, on the known abundance and comparative cheapness of food at this time, and on the good sanitary state of the population at large, that the time of greatest distress in this year is already past, and that a progressive improvement has already begun and will steadily go on until the time of the year (September) when the decrease of pauperism usually ends, and an increase again commences.

It is possible, however, that some disturbance of the ordinary law of increase and decrease may occur from the fact, that in some parts of Ireland the causes of distress have been cumulative for two or three years, tending to an exhaustion of resources, and that in other districts trade is suffering much from the continuance of the civil war in America; which latter circumstance not only presses on some of the town populations in Ireland, but causes many Irish, who are thrown out of employment in Great Britain, to return and swell the numbers of the destitute in their native country. It appears that after Connaught the province of Ulster has suffered next in degree, and that the county of Armagh, the seat of an extensive linen manufacture by hand-loom, shows the largest percentage of increased pauperism in Ireland, amounting to no less than 45 per cent.

Up to the present time the compulsory removal of Irish-born subjects from England to Ireland has not been so frequent as might have been expected from the collapse of trade in the English cotton districts.

The recent change in the law of removal from England to Ireland may have had some influence in checking the practice of deportation. The state of that law, however, and the way in which it is administered in England, remain in our opinion unsatisfactory. The total number of removal orders known to have been executed since the passing, in August last, of the Act 24 & 25 Vict. c. 76, is 140, comprising 278 persons.

In the autumn of 1860, when the potato blight was producing some alarm, we thought it desirable to prepare for a possible augmentation of the numbers in the workhouses by revising what are called the Limitation Orders, issued during the famine period to the several unions in Ireland, limiting the number of persons to be accommodated in each workhouse at one and the same time. Since the issue of many of those orders, changes in the extent and arrangement of the available buildings had occurred; and we were anxious, moreover, to take the utmost precaution practicable against the possibility of overcrowding, hereafter, any part of a workhouse.

We, therefore, set on foot a new measurement and new appropriation of the space in the workhouses and placed the authorized total number to be received into each workhouse under new sealed orders. We, at the same time, caused the guardians to have the number authorized for each dormitory affixed, in legible characters, on the entrance door of each. These operations have since been completed throughout Ireland, and have

resulted in a reduction of the supposed available accommodation in workhouses from 186,917 to 146,927.

Although, at the present time, the aggregate available accommodation in workhouses is, as before stated, 146,927, and the number of inmates 60,447, leaving space on the whole for 86,480, some of the workhouses in the larger unions, especially South Dublin, Cork, and Limerick, have been pressed upon by applicants for relief so as nearly to fill all the vacant space.

We have not, however, up to the present time issued any order under the 2nd section of 10th Vict., cap. 31, authorizing out-door relief, in food, to able-bodied persons, nor do we now expect to be called upon to do so; a diminution of the number of inmates being generally in progress.

The proceedings under the Medical Charities Act show a distribution in the year ended 30th September, 1861, of 627,322 dispensary tickets, and 167,447 visiting tickets: total, 794,769, against 761,633 in the previous year. The expenditure for medical charities was 104,681*l.* in 1861, against 104,247*l.* in 1860.

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS.

Table of the Number of Marriages, Births, and Deaths, registered in England in the Year 1862.

With a population in 1861 of 20,066,224, there were 163,991 marriages, or 327,982 persons married; 711,691 births; and 436,514 deaths. The births included 363,241 males and 348,450 females; and the deaths 222,942 males, and 213,572 females. The marriages were registered in the following proportions: 33,976 in the quarter ending the last day of March, 40,771 in the quarter ending June, 40,586 in the quarter ending September, and 48,659 in the quarter ending December. The births were registered as follows: 182,005 in the quarter ending March, 185,638 in the quarter ending June, 172,237 in the quarter ending September, and 171,811 in the quarter ending December. The deaths were registered as follow: 122,197 in the quarter ending March, 107,555 in the quarter ending June, 92,225 in the quarter ending September, and 114,542 in the quarter ending December. In the London division, in a population of 2,803,989, there were 28,838 marriages, 97,418 births, and 66,950 deaths. In the South-Eastern, in a population of 1,847,661, there were 13,775 marriages, 59,293 births, and 33,944 deaths. In the South Midland, in a population of 1,295,497, there were 8760 marriages, 43,186 births, and 24,980 deaths. In the Eastern, in a population of 1,142,580, there were 7651 marriages, 37,268 births, and 22,097 deaths. In the South-Western, in a population of 1,835,714, there was 13,772 marriages, 59,616 births, and 34,469 deaths. In the West Midland, in a population of 2,436,568, there were 19,907 marriages, 89,001 births, and 52,164 deaths. In the North Midland, in a population of 1,288,928, there were 9610 marriages, 45,149 births, and 25,341 deaths. In the North-Western, in a population of 2,935,540, there were 24,862 marriages, 114,466 births, and 75,115 deaths. In the York division, in a population of 2,015,541, there were 17,266 marriages, 75,930 births, 47,517 deaths. In the Northern, in a population of 1,151,372, there were 9757 marriages, 45,451 births, and 26,366 deaths. And in the Welsh, in a population of 1,312,834, there were 9795 marriages, 44,913 births, and 27,571 deaths.

PARLIAMENTARY PROCEEDINGS.

Report from the Select Committee on Parliamentary Proceedings.

ON the 1st April, 1862, a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to consider whether it is practicable and expedient to provide a compendious record of parliamentary proceedings for the use of members. The committee was nominated on the 10th, and it consisted of Mr. Edward Pleydell Bouverie, Sir George Grey, Mr. Massey, Mr. Sotheron Estcourt, Mr. Walpole, Viscount Enfield, Mr. Henry Herbert, Sir William Heathcote, Colonel Wilson Patten, Mr. Hennessy, Mr. Purcell, Mr. Stansfeld, and Mr. Bright; Mr. Kinnaird and Lord Robert Montague were afterwards added to the committee. The committee examined Mr. Thomas Erskine May, C.B., clerk assistant to the House of Commons, Mr. Toulmin Smith, author of the *Parliamentary Remembrancer*; Mr. James Bigg, author of several works on parliamentary proceedings; Mr. Charles Rowland, clerk of the Journal; Mr. T. C. Hansard, editor of *Hansard's Debates*; Dr. Leone Levi, editor of *Annals of British Legislation*; and Mr. Charles Ross, director of the *Times* parliamentary reporting corps, and author of the *Parliamentary Record*. On the 2nd July, the committee reported as follows:—

Before considering whether it is practicable and expedient to provide a compendious record of parliamentary proceedings for the use of members, your committee desire to state, briefly, the existing mode of recording the proceedings of the House of Commons, of making that record known, and of facilitating search as to any particular entries contained in it.

The clerk of the House of Commons, or, as he is styled in his patent, “the under clerk of the Parliament, to attend upon the Commons,” before he enters upon his office, has to take an oath “to attend upon the Commons of this realm of Great Britain, making true entries, remembrances, and journals of the things done and past in the same.”

In discharge of this duty, it is his practice, with the aid of the first and second clerk assistant, to keep two minute books at the table of the House, in which every act, order, and proceeding of the House, and any communication made to it, is recorded.

It should be observed, that the clerk is prohibited from taking notes or making entry of any debate, it having been an ancient resolution of the House, “that the entry of the clerk of particular men’s speeches was without warrant.” The single exception to this prohibition appears to be, when it becomes the duty of the clerk, in certain circumstances, to take down the words of a member to which objection has been made as irregular. No mention, therefore, occurs in the minute book of those questions, unaccompanied by a motion, which now occupy a large portion of the daily notice paper, or of the answers given to such questions.

From the two minute books of the clerks, the daily votes are made up under the direction of Mr. Speaker ; and every act or proceeding of the House, and every communication made to it, except as regards petitions, is separately entered in the order of time as it occurs. Petitions, regarding the same subject, are entered under the head of that subject, and the subjects are arranged in alphabetical order in the vote entries.

The votes have been printed since 1680, with two or three interruptions, and since 1817 very nearly in their present form. The House is indebted to arrangements first introduced by Mr. Speaker Abbott, for the regularity with which the votes of the preceding day are daily distributed to every member. The amount of papers now distributed daily to members, respecting the proceedings of the House alone, is very large, and reached last session to nine folio volumes. They are enumerated by Mr. May in his evidence to the committee.

The entries in the votes, necessarily, are extremely numerous, as the acts of the House relate to a vast variety of matters ; and it would not be advisable, even if it were possible, for the clerk to exercise any discrimination or selection with respect to them, although many of the entries are in themselves comparatively insignificant, or of no permanent interest. In the session of 1861 there were, altogether, 9331 separate numbered entries ; of these there were, relating to petitions, 1874 ; private bills, 2397 ; accounts and papers, 1574 ; proceedings on bills, 1215 ; postponements of stages of bills, 805 ; general motions on public matters, 126 ; committee of supply, 100 ; postponements of committee of supply, 80. The whole of the entries relating to public matters, excluding petitions, accounts and papers, and private bills, were only 3586.

There is no index distributed to members, nor any means given them of ascertaining the date, or position of any particular entry in the votes ; but there are, within the House itself, four indexes in manuscript, kept up from day to day, by various officers, for the use of their several departments, independently of each other. These are not prepared on the same principle, but they are all accessible to those members who may desire to have recourse to them. One of these, comprised in two sub-divisions, viz., bills and other business, is kept on the table of the House, another in the journal-office, a third in the library, and the fourth in the committee clerk's office.

There are, further, in the journal-office an index to all notices of motion, and an index of petitions.

Your committee are informed that, formerly, a general index to the votes was printed at the end of the session. This has been discontinued since 1818, owing to the index of the journals being printed at an earlier period, after the close of the session, than had previously been the case, and thus becoming a substitute for the vote index.

As respects the journals, it is the clerk's office to see that the journal is properly made out from the minute books already described, the printed

votes, and the original papers which have been laid before the House. The entries of the journal are, in many respects, fuller and more explicit than those contained in the votes. In practice, the journal is kept written up within a very few days after the votes, and the sheets are struck off from time to time as the session goes on.

An elaborate index to the journal, partly classified and partly alphabetical, is yearly compiled by the clerk of the journals, and is printed and ready for distribution in December.

As regards proceedings in the other House of Parliament, the House of Commons has no formal knowledge of them except by appointing a committee to search their journals. The House of Lords, your committee are informed, did not print their minutes, which are equivalent to the votes of the House of Commons, till the year 1824, and even now, the minutes, though to be found on the table of your House, are not formally or officially communicated to the House; nor are the votes of the House of Commons officially communicated to the Lords.

Your committee are further informed, that the Lords' journals are generally a year and a half or two years in arrear. Whenever, therefore, a committee of the Commons have to search the Lords' journals respecting current business, there is, in fact, no journal to search, but an entry is duly prepared for the purpose, to satisfy the requirements of the House of Commons. It appears to your committee well worthy of consideration, whether the House of Lords should not be requested to give directions, that their minutes should be formally communicated from day to day to the House of Commons, and whether the House of Commons should not deem their knowledge of the Lords' proceedings, derived from such minutes, sufficient ground, upon which to take any proceedings of their own, with respect to acts of the House of Lords. Perhaps it would be sufficient for the House to resolve, that they will accept the minutes of the Lords as sufficient evidence of the proceedings of their lordships' House.

Your committee are of opinion that it would promote the despatch of public business by shortening the labour of those who are engaged in carrying it on, if the utmost facility were afforded, by ready means of reference, for ascertaining, with respect to any business of the session, in either House, what had been done, when it had been done, and how it had been done. No such facility, as to current business, can be said now to exist. Unless by recourse to one of the indexes already described, and which are not accessible to the public, any one wishing to find a particular entry in the votes must wade through the whole mass of entries in order to do so; and, except in this way, he has no means of ascertaining when a particular transaction occurred, bill was read, or proceeding was taken, nor how any business was disposed of.

Your committee are of opinion that this facility of reference would be greatly promoted by a simple classification of the votes, which, they are assured, by the clerk assistant, there would be no practical difficulty in

adopting; they recommend, therefore, that the entries in the votes be classified, under the three heads of—private business, petitions, and public business; the last head including accounts and papers, messages, communications, privilege, proceedings on public bills, supply, &c., and embracing, generally, the whole of the matters of public interest. A specimen of the votes of one day of this session thus classified is attached to this report. This classification would not interfere with the arrangement of the entries in the journal in their present order, which is that in which each proceeding recorded actually occurred.

Your committee further recommend that an alphabetical register should be printed, from month to month, of the past public business of the session, giving the dates of each proceeding with reference to the different subjects of entry. A specimen of such a register has been prepared by Mr. May, the clerk assistant, at the request of the committee, and will be found appended to this report; to which your committee would draw the attention of the House.

Your committee are also of opinion that advantage would be derived from adopting the practice of printing, once a week, an alphabetical list of the bills pending in the House, with the sessional number of each bill, and of every successive reprint of each bill, if the bill has been reprinted, together with the dates for their next ensuing stages, as ordered by the House; this might form a page of the notice paper for the week, now delivered every Saturday, during the sitting of the House.

Your committee are aware that the object they have in view would be very imperfectly obtained if the change they have suggested in the frame of the votes, and the register which they have recommended, should be confined to the votes and to the business of the House of Commons; it is equally desirable that the like facilities should be created with reference to the minutes and the business of the House of Lords; but this is a duty which obviously cannot be undertaken by the officers of the House of Commons. Your committee, therefore, content themselves with expressing a hope that the proposed change will recommend itself for adoption to the House of Lords.

Your committee are not prepared to recommend any change with respect to the journals themselves. Their value as a storehouse of precedents, continuous, abiding, and authentic, and as a record of the entire acts of the House of Commons for more than three centuries, is so great, and depends so much on their being maintained in their ancient form and fulness, that no suggestion for a change should be entertained. Their very fulness, however, and their bulk, make them unsuitable for ordinary and constant reference.

Your committee think that it would be greatly for the convenience of members of the House, and of the public, if they could be furnished with a record of the leading and material entries in the votes and minutes of the Lords and Commons respectively, at the close of the session, with an appro-

priate index. The journals of either House are very voluminous, but without the journals, or the votes and minutes of both, there are no means of tracing the progress of business which in the ordinary course of legislation has passed through Parliament. A careful selection of entries, omitting those of minor importance or of temporary interest, would so far reduce the total extent of such a record as to admit of its being comprised in a very convenient shape of small bulk.

Your committee have had laid before them several specimens of works which might furnish a compendious record of parliamentary proceedings for the use of members; among them is one called the *Parliamentary Record*, which was prepared last year by Mr. Charles Ross. It contains such a selection of the entries in the votes and minutes of either House, as above described, and, in addition, an entry of such questions asked in either House, with a note of the answers, as do not admit of being recorded in the votes or minutes, inasmuch as they are technically matters of debate, without any proceeding of either House being taken upon them, but which, at the same time, according to modern practice, form an important part of the actual business noticed in Parliament. This work also contains a convenient index to the various matters recorded in it, compiled on the same principle as the register suggested by the clerk assistant, and already referred to.

It does not appear to your committee to be practicable, that such a work as this could properly be prepared or compiled by the officers of either House, or of both Houses combined; and even if the technical difficulties in the way of its being done could be got over, such a preparation would confer an authority upon a work of the kind, which your committee do not think it expedient to give to a mere selection, or compilation, from the entire and authentic entries of the proceedings of both Houses.

Your committee, notwithstanding, think such a work, although unauthoritative, would be of a very useful character, and deserving the encouragement and assistance of the public, and of the House. However skilfully compiled, and however valuable to the limited number of persons likely to use it, a compilation of the kind can scarcely be supposed likely to create a demand for itself, from the public at large, sufficient to meet the expenses of preparing and printing it. This is equally true of the great bulk of the papers which are laid before Parliament. They are prepared and are printed for the use of the members of both Houses, and sold to the public, greatly to the public advantage; although there cannot be said to be such a demand for any large portion of them, as would make it remunerative to prepare and print them. The same is partially the case with respect to the valuable work well known as *Hansard's Debates*, the importance of which is fully recognized, both in and out of Parliament, but which partly depends for its success as a remunerative undertaking on a contribution from the public purse, in the shape of a subscription for a large

number of copies for the use of Parliament, and of the numerous offices of the State.

Your committee think that, with the sanction of the Treasury, some similar arrangement might advantageously be made by the Stationery Office, either for the preparing, printing, and delivery of a certain number of copies of such a work to the members of both Houses of Parliament and to the principal public offices, or, by an agreement for a subscription for a certain number of copies with a person competent and willing to prepare, print, and publish it on his own account; and your committee recommend that the advantages they think the production of such a work would afford be tested by way of experiment, by the adoption of such an arrangement for a short term. They would observe, that they are assured that the whole expense of preparing, printing, and delivering 1200 copies of such a work would not exceed 500*l*.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES.

25° & 26° VICTORIÆ, 1862.

SERIES G.—POPULATION, MUNICIPAL, &c.

UNITED KINGDOM.

BLEACH-FIELD.

CAP. VIII.—*An Act to prevent the Employment of Women and Children during the Night in certain operations connected with Bleaching by the open-air process.* (11th April, 1862.)

Women and children not to be employed during the night. Application of power of the 7 and 8 Vict. c. 15, being an Act to amend the laws relating to labour in factories, to this Act.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

SALE OF SPIRITS.

CAP. XXXVIII.—*An Act to amend the Laws relating to the Sale of Spirits.* (17th July, 1862.)

Section 12 of 24 Geo. II. c. 40, enacting that no action should be brought to recover any debt for spirituous liquors, unless contracted at one time, to the amount of 20s., was repealed.

QUALIFICATION FOR OFFICES.

CAP. LX.—*An Act to indemnify such persons in the United Kingdom as have omitted to qualify themselves for Offices and Employments, and to extend the time limited for these purposes respectively.* (29th July, 1862.)

PETROLEUM.

CAP. LXVI.—*An Act for the safe keeping of Petroleum.* (29th July, 1862.)

Petroleum to include any product that gives off an inflammable vapour at a temperature of less than 100 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer. No more than forty gallons of petroleum to be kept within fifty yards of a dwelling-house, or of a building in which goods are stored, except in pursuance of a licence given. Any petroleum kept in contravention of this provision to be forfeited, and, in addition thereto, the occupier of the

place in which such petroleum is kept to incur a penalty not exceeding 20*l.* a day for each day during which petroleum is kept in contravention of this Act.

GUNPOWDER ACT AMENDMENT.

CAP. XCVIII.—*An Act for the amendment of an Act of the Session of the 23rd and 24th Years of the reign of her present Majesty, c. 139, intituled an Act to amend the Law concerning the Making, Keeping, and Carriage of Gunpowder, and compositions of an explosive nature, and concerning the Manufacture, Sale, and Uses of Fireworks, and of an Act amending the last-mentioned Act.* (7th August, 1862.)

Extension of sections 25 and 27 of the principal Act to other explosive compositions. Divisional magistrates of police to exercise licensing powers within the Dublin police district.

ELECTION.

CAP. CIX.—*An Act to continue the Corrupt Practices Prevention Act, 1854.* (7th August, 1862.)

POOR REMOVAL.

CAP. CXIII.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the Removal of Poor Persons from England to Scotland, and from Scotland to England and Ireland.* (7th August, 1862.)

Warrant of removal to Scotland to be signed by two justices or a magistrate, and to England or Ireland by the sheriff or two justices. The warrant to contain the name and age of every person to be removed, and copy of the warrant to be sent to the parochial board, or clerks of guardians of union, or parish to which the removal is to be made. The warrant to order the poor person to be conveyed to the place mentioned in the warrant. Relieving officers and inspectors of poor to receive poor persons named in the warrant, under penalty of 10*l.* Women and children not to be removed as deck passengers during the winter.

ENGLAND.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

CAP. XXV.—*An Act to confirm certain provisional Orders under the Local Government Act, 1858, relating to the districts of Hanley, Stroud, Ilfracombe, Longton, Halifax, Ipswich, and Sandown.* (30th June, 1862.)

PORTSDOWN FAIR.

CAP. XXXIV.—*An Act for the Discontinuance of Portsdown Fair, in the County of Southampton.* (7th July, 1862.)

WINDSOR CASTLE.

CAP. LVII.—*An Act to authorize the Sale of her Majesty's Bakehouse in Peascod Street, Windsor, and the application of the proceeds in the Purchase of Land or Buildings to be held with Windsor Castle.* (29th July, 1862.)

LOCAL RATES.

CAP. LXXXII.—*An Act for the more economical Recovery of Poor Rates and other Local Rates and Taxes.* (7th August, 1862.)

When any number of rates and taxes are due from the same person, the whole may be included in the same information or summons.

PUBLIC OFFICES.

CAP. LXXIV.—*An Act to enable the Commissioners of her Majesty's Works to acquire additional Land, for the purposes of the Public Offices Extension Act of 1859, by way of exchange for land already acquired, but not wanted, for the purposes of the said Act.* (7th August, 1862.)

THAMES EMBANKMENT.

CAP. XCIII.—*An Act for Embanking the North Side of the River Thames from Westminster Bridge to Blackfriars Bridge, and for making new streets in and near thereto.* (7th August, 1862.)

Certain works were authorized, including making and maintaining an embankment and viaduct on the left bank of the river Thames, making on the said embankment a public roadway 100 feet wide, making approaches and new streets. Power was given to appropriate land and to grant building leases, to borrow money and mortgage to the extent of 1,000,000*l*.

POLLING PLACES.

CAP. XCV.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to Polling Places in the Boroughs of New Shoreham, Creckdale, Aylesbury, and East Retford.* (7th August, 1862.)

UNION RELIEF ACT.

CAP. CX.—*An Act to enable Boards of Guardians of certain Unions to obtain temporary Aid to meet the extraordinary demands for Relief therein.* (7th August, 1862.)

The guardians may charge cost of relief in excess of 3*s*. in the pound on the other parishes in union. If the aggregate expenditure of the whole union at Michaelmas or Christmas next shall exceed 3*s*. in the pound on the rateable value of the property of the union, guardians may apply to Poor Law Board for authority to borrow. Guardians of distressed unions, where the expenditure shall have exceeded 3*s*. in the pound, may apply to the Poor Law Board, who may apportion such excess of expenditure over the unions in the county.

CHARITY COMMISSIONERS.

CAP. CXII.—*An Act for establishing the Jurisdiction of the Charity Commissioners in certain cases.* (7th August, 1862.)

No provision in any Act of Parliament or decree relating to any charity under any order of the Court of Chancery to exclude any jurisdiction which might otherwise be exercised by the Charity Commissioners.

SCOTLAND.

PUBLIC HOUSES.

CAP. XXXV.—*An Act to amend the Acts for the Regulation of Public Houses in Scotland.* (7th July, 1862.)

The magistrates of burghs and the justices of the peace to meet for granting and renewing certificates for the sale of exciseable liquors within their respective bounds, counties, and districts, at certain times in each year.

The certificates for the sale of spirits and wine to include authority to sell porter, ale, beer, &c. Any certificate granted contrary to this Act, null and void. No licences to be granted without a certificate obtained under this Act. The chief magistrate or justices on special occasions may grant permission to keep open during particular times. Persons holding licences for the sale of table beer to be subject to the same conditions as persons holding certificates. Certificate of character and qualification not necessary with application for renewal of certificate. List of new applications for certificates to be published; justices, &c., to cause descriptive lists to be printed of persons to whom certificates have been granted. Certain parties may object to the granting or renewal of certificates. Justices or magistrates at general meetings may hear objections to granting certificates. Constables to have power to enter eating-houses, &c., and penalty for obstructing them. Police to report persons licensed, from whose premises persons in a state of intoxication have been seen frequently to issue, or against whom there is other cause of complaint. Permitting drinking exciseable liquors in a neighbouring house, shed, &c., with intent to evade the provisions of the Act to be deemed drinking on the premises. Persons hawking exciseable liquors to be apprehended, and on conviction to be fined or imprisoned. Penalty on persons trafficking in exciseable liquors without a certificate. The sheriff, magistrate, or justice may grant warrant to summon, and in the case of shebeens may grant warrant to apprehend. Proof of trafficking in any shebeen. Persons found in shebeens may be taken into custody. Warrant may be granted to seize spirits found in unlicensed premises: penalties. Penalty on disorderly persons refusing to quit licensed houses on request. Persons falsely representing themselves to be travellers, liable in a penalty. Persons found intoxicated and incapable of taking care of themselves guilty of an offence. Penalty for harbouring constables while on duty. Procurator fiscal or other party appointed shall prosecute. Application of penalties and expenses. Power to justices or magistrates to summon witnesses. Punishment of witnesses refusing to attend or prevaricating. Offences may be tried in police courts. Certain offences may be tried in police courts. Warrants, &c., may be enforced in other counties, &c.

PAROCHIAL BUILDINGS.

CAP. LVIII.—*An Act to make further provision with respect to the raising of Money for erecting and improving Parochial Buildings in Scotland.* (29th July, 1862.)

Heritors may resolve that parochial buildings may be raised by annual assessments. Money may be borrowed for such a purpose.

IRELAND.

POOR RELIEF

CAP. LXXXIII.—*An Act to amend the Laws in force for the Relief of the Destitute Poor in Ireland, and to continue the Powers of the Commissioners.* (7th August, 1862).

Power of guardians to admit poor persons requiring medical or surgical aid into hospitals. Poor persons of sufficient ability to pay the cost of maintenance there, or part thereof. When the religion of the parent is not known, the guardian, godfather, or godmother may have the power to object to the place chosen for the education of the child, or place for her education. Several sections are devoted to the election of guardians. The guardians to provide for the burial of any person whose family or connections are not known.

ELECTIONS.

CAP. XCII.—*An Act to limit the Time for proceeding to Elections in Counties and Boroughs in Ireland.* (7th August, 1862.)

Elections in counties in Ireland to be not later than twelfth, nor sooner than sixth day from the day of proclamation. The election in cities to be within six days after receipt of writ, or precept giving three clear days' notice.

COUNTY SURVEYORS.

CAP. CVI.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the Appointment of County Surveyors in Ireland.* (7th August, 1862.)

DOGS.

CAP. LIX.—*An Act to render Owners of Dogs, in Ireland, liable for Injuries to Sheep.* (29th July, 1862.)

The owner of a dog to be liable for damages, not exceeding 5*l.*, for any injury committed to any sheep by his dog. The occupier of any house or premises, where any dog is kept, to be liable for such injury.

ELECTIONS.

CAP. LXII.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to the duration of Contested Elections for Counties in Ireland, and for establishing additional Places for taking the Poll thereat.* (29th July, 1862.)

At every contested election the polling to commence on the next day but two after the day fixed for the election, such day not being Sunday, Good Friday, or Christmas Day, and to continue for one day only, commencing at 8 A.M. until 5 P.M.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

CAP. LXXVI.—*An Act to amend the Weights and Measures (Ireland) Act, 1860, to abolish local and customary Denominations of Weights, and to regulate the mode of weighing articles sold in Ireland. (7th August, 1862.)*

Head and other constables, appointed by the inspector-general of constabulary, to be ex-officio inspectors of weights and measures. The inspector-general to appoint one officer, in each county or borough, to take custody of imperial standards, who shall also stamp sub-standards. Such inspector to have the power to enter shops to inspect beams, &c. All contracts, bargain, sale, or dealing for corn, grain, pulse, hay, pulses, beef, mutton, &c., or of any quantity of any other commodity not sold by troy weight or by apothecary's weight, to be sold either by the ounce avoirdupois, by the pound of 16 ounces, the stone of 14 lbs., the quarter-hundred of 28 lbs., the half-hundred of 56 lbs. the cwt. of 112 lbs., or the ton of 20 cwts., and not by any local or customary denomination of weight whatsoever, otherwise such contract to be void. Every article sold by weight to be weighed in full net standing beam. Counterfeiting any brand or stamp used by the owner of a market or sale to denote weights and measures, or counterfeiting the stamp or impression, or having in possession such counterfeited brand, or altering any ticket specifying the weight, or selling any weight or measure with a counterfeited brand, to be misdemeanor, and punished by a penalty not exceeding five pounds.

LUNATIC ASYLUMS, IRELAND.

Eleventh Report of the District, Criminal, and Private Lunatic Asylums in Ireland.

THAT a progressive and marked improvement has steadily taken place in district establishments for the insane is undeniable, both in regard to the comfort and attention bestowed upon their inmates, and the successful treatment adopted in them.

Our present object is simply to state the results of the working of district hospitals for the insane, and in doing so, we can, perhaps, best elucidate the subject by the comparison of them, past and present, with themselves, and with similar institutions elsewhere.

First.—Then, as to cures, in regard to which, we venture to say, that Irish asylums have heretofore held a prominent place. The recoveries in them, if we are to judge from official records, being more numerous than have occurred in other countries, no matter how tested—whether by admissions, the daily averages, or the total under treatment, for any definite period. Analysing the returns on these heads for the last nine months, we find the cures proportionally for the time greater than on previous occasions, amounting on 921 admissions to 450, or 49 per cent., and on the daily average (4348) under treatment, to 13·8 per cent. In our last report, the absolute recoveries for the preceding biennial period on admissions appears as 46·71, or 2 under the present; and on the average then under treatment, 14, about the same as now.

Secondly.—Referring to parties discharged as being convalescent, viz., 103, and 40 as uncured, making an aggregate of 143, it would appear that of the total received, (921,) 160 had been through readmissions, but not necessarily of individuals discharged within the nine months. On this point we wish to be as explicit as possible, for if they (the 160) formed part of the 450 already referred to as recovered, there would be reason to question the reality of the cures. These readmissions, however, are, for the most part, made up of cases belonging to more distant periods, and which, after long intervals of health, sometimes of as many as from eight to ten years, were obliged, from the recurrence of insanity, to seek hospital treatment again. Indeed we have reason to believe that no inconsiderable portion, probably a thirteenth or fourteenth of the inmates of the asylums in this country, consists of relapsed patients.

We cannot institute any comparison between Irish asylums and those in England, France, or elsewhere, on the proportion of primary admissions to readmissions, inasmuch as in all other Governmental returns both are grouped without distinction as to their relative numbers under the one heading. With us, each is not only given separately, but the different occasions on which the lunatics may have been previously confined. This system we have adopted as being the most definite and satisfactory in affording information with regard to the liability of relapses in insanity; and, so far as we can form an opinion, fully three-fourths of them would be found immediately referable to dissipation or destitution, particularly if there existed a family predisposition to mental disease.

Thirdly.—As to deaths. An English writer of great practical experience, and well versed in the statistics of lunacy, lays it down that a

mortality under 8 per cent. bespeaks a very favourable state of things; if so, Irish asylums are particularly fortunate; for assuming 8 to be represented by 100, the mortality in them would be at the annual rate of 82 on the daily averages, and 70 on the total under treatment. It is a source of regret, that even one among the deaths should be referable to accident or suicide. We have to report four produced by the former, and one from the latter cause; but when it is remembered that 249 were transferred in the nine months just from prison as dangerous to themselves or others, independent of those already in asylum under similar circumstances, and that an aggregate of 5210 of all classes were under treatment, the number of such deaths, (five,) will not be surprising;—still less so, if we advert to the suicides in the arrondissement of the Seine, where it would appear that one in every 2600 of the male population at large dies by his own hand.

Fourthly.—On the subject of escapes or attempts to escape, we can form no comparison between our district asylums and those in other countries, as in the latter they are not officially recorded, possibly it may be they do not occur. During the past nine months four effected a permanent escape, that is, found their way home and were detained there; and sixteen got over the boundaries, but were retaken by the attendants, and brought back by them:—the longest absent being twenty-four hours. In one instance, that at Sligo, already detailed, the patient lost his life, as it is presumed, from accident.

The disproportion between the single and married, the former amounting to 2984, the latter to 1243, must at first sight seem extraordinary; but the difference is explicable by the fact, that independent of the larger ratio of the unmarried in society at large, insanity is a disease of early much more than of advanced life; while among the single the hereditary taint, when it exists, is more likely to be brought into action by intemperance and continued habits of dissipation.

Our object in introducing the educational condition of the inmates of the different district asylums, and in which the illiterate more than double those who have received a fair amount of education, was to exhibit their previous social position, and to show the beneficial working of these institutions in producing habits of order, neatness, and even some approach to refinement among the insane classes; while the number daily employed in and out of doors, serves to prove the encouragement given to industrial occupations. On this latter head, however, we feel satisfied that great room for improvement still exists, and that suitable occupations could be devised for a much greater proportion of patients than at present; for nothing can be more injurious to the insane themselves than idleness, and that listless mode of existence, particularly within doors, which we regret to observe is too much tolerated. In the absence of industrial employment, pastimes ought to be more generally provided.

In our last report we stated our intention to apply to the Commissioners of National Education for the means of establishing classes in Irish district asylums. We have since done so, and are happy to state that the proposition was cordially assented to. This is a step in advance; and though for obvious reasons it cannot be expected that much success will attend any system of tuition in lunatic asylums, still, the mind is thereby more or less engaged and diverted from the one continuous train of thought.

When stating the condition of each district asylum, in none of them did

we omit to mention the proportions which the incurable bore to the curable, viz., 3265 to 1123—a question at once presents itself: Is *regular* asylum accommodation required for every *incurable*? We think not; for while all need supervision, that is not necessarily limited to the precincts of an hospital duly constituted for the treatment of insanity; neither, on the other hand, is the lunatic, however tranquil, amenable, and hopelessly demented he may seem in an asylum, at all times a fit object to be removed from it. Each case must be examined on its own peculiar merits.

The consideration of how chronic patients should be dealt with, is one of considerable importance in a social and fiscal point of view.

It is quite clear that not only the institutions about to be enlarged, but those about to be erected, will be filled, like most of those already established, after the lapse of a few years. The insane are an accumulative community, composed of various classes. There are now in asylums, and will be so, until some counteracting arrangement be arrived at, aged imbecile lunatics, of enervated frame, who have sunk into a state of fatuity, and harmless idiots, beyond the influence of any tuition, whose room might be better filled by more urgent or hopeful applicants, without detriment to the displaced, if the creature comforts of life, and a kindly attendance, were afforded them as before. We cannot fix the exact percentage of these parties, but from personal observation, we apprehend it might be set down as between ten and twelve per cent., one asylum with another. Thus, for example, at Killarney, there would probably be found about twenty of its inmates fit objects for transference from the regular wards of that institution to a less organized, but still not unsuitable, establishment.

The poor-houses in this country have varied but little for the last four or five years in the number of their lunatic inmates; but, as a general rule, a better and more considerate system of treatment has been adopted in their regard, particularly in those Unions—as, for example, in the North and South Dublin, the Limerick, Waterford, Kilkenny, Belfast, &c., &c.—in which many of the insane classes happened to be maintained; a liberal dietary is allowed them, and in other respects, so far as the capabilities of these establishments admit of, their comforts are fairly attended to.

From the collective returns (163) before us, it appears that a very small proportion of these reported as being mentally affected are actually lunatic in the restricted acceptance of the term, the great majority being composed of imbeciles or epileptics.

In the correctness of these returns we concur from our own personal observation, having visited the workhouses already named, and very many others, not alone for the purpose of suggesting arrangements tending to the general benefit of all, but for the object of specially inquiring into the mental condition of each of their demented inmates. As we have already expressed our opinion as to the manner in which the insane classes in question should be provided for, and pointed out the unsuitable construction of workhouses as receptacles for no inconsiderable portion of them, not omitting to mention the deficiency of in-door means for classification, as well as of facilities for out-door occupation or amusement, we deem it unnecessary, on the present occasion, to trouble your Excellency with what would be but a simple reproduction from preceding Parliamentary Reports.

We are quite aware of the difficulties in which the question of suitably locating persons labouring under diseased manifestations of the mind, in all

their varied forms, is involved, and of the large expense to which the community must be subjected, if regular asylum accommodation had to be provided for all, and which, furthermore, would be a useless one, inasmuch as for the major part of the idiotic, epileptic, and demented, it is only necessary to secure a due amount of care and of those comforts and enjoyments which they are capable of appreciating. The subject is one of considerable importance, requiring not alone a mature consideration in its details, but that discussion on the respective merits of suggestions which, just now, it might be premature to undertake.

Since the date of our last report, we have, as far as lay in our power, disembarassed gaols of dangerous lunatics; but the numbers still confined in them, from an almost daily replenishment, show that the relief, practically speaking, has been altogether inefficient; for, instead of diminishing, committals to them appear to have increased within the last nine months; and, as a matter of course, in those districts where asylum accommodation is most needed, the accumulation of lunatics has become greater, as in the gaols of Down, Wexford, Dublin, Donegal—in fact, no stronger evidence can be afforded of the condition of a county in regard to provision for its insane poor, than the state of the prisons belonging to it. In some of them, no doubt very much reduced in the quantity of ordinary prisoners, the lunatics constitute nearly a fourth of the inmates, much to the dissatisfaction of the authorities, as they interfere so directly with discipline, particularly where the separate system is carried out; for the more perfect the organization, the greater would seem the disadvantages accruing to it from an intermixture of the sane and insane. Though detention in prison after a certain time may, as a rule, be considered to exercise a very deleterious influence over lunatics, it would still be a mistake to suppose that all committals must necessarily prove injurious to the committed—the reverse is by no means uncommon; neither should this fact be a matter of surprise, when it is remembered that as dissipation, exposure to excitement, and habits of intemperance, constitute no inconsiderable share of the immediate causes of insanity, the sudden interruption to them, caused by the control and isolation of a prison life, not unfrequently acts both promptly and efficaciously on the lunatic. It may also be observed that there are certain ingredients of success which some gaols may possess more largely than the crowded asylum of the district. The former is had recourse to on the first violent outbreak of the disease, while the patient himself, unless there be many of his class confined with him, has a greater intercourse with the sane.

We would thus account for the early cures effected in prison; so that, much as one may disapprove, in very many cases, of the mode of committal, it must be acknowledged there is some good mixed up with the evil; while, under any circumstances, the lunatic who otherwise might be neglected, and possibly maltreated, finds a temporary refuge; so, until some adequate accommodation be established, gaols must be more or less had recourse to, as affording, in urgent cases, an auxiliary provision for the insane. It would, no doubt, be much more satisfactory for the public service, did magistrates commit persons only to prison as violent or dangerous lunatics, who *bona fide* were so; but they adopt, as the law advisers of the Crown can fully corroborate, a very lax and culpable practice, on many occasions, in the mode of carrying out the provisions of the Act. The committals being directly transmitted to our office, in order that action may be taken

on them, we are in a condition to say that, on an average, one in every five or six, if not actually illegal, are irregular on some point or other; and thereon a lengthened correspondence commences. The truth is, magistrates frequently sign warrants of committal without seeing, as they are bound, the alleged lunatic, or making that strict inquiry which ought never be omitted, into the antecedents of each case.

Hence parties, when they become troublesome at home, from old age, bad temper, physical infirmities, and the like, find their way into prisons, provided that, being unsettled in their minds, relatives may depose to their insanity. Governors of gaols cannot or do not like to question magisterial authority, and so, as a matter of course, these individuals, no matter how tranquil or reasonable they may appear, are received by them as dangerous lunatics. We not unfrequently have found persons so committed, turned of sixty or seventy years of age, half-blind, decrepit, and in their dotage; and it has happened that some have been actually brought in a dying state, and under very painful circumstances, to gaol, as being dangerous to themselves or others. We do all we can to check the abuses of the Act which, if correctly administered, and with discrimination, we consider calculated as a temporary safeguard for the protection of society, as well as of the unhappy individuals themselves. Faulty though the results may be, and will continue to be, through inattention on the part of those whose duty it is to carry out the law in its true spirit, human life should not be imperilled by the abrogation of one statute till we have the means of guarding it through the operations of another.

If the party is a pauper maniac, clearly evincing dangerous and uncontrollable propensities, we cannot fairly object, in the absence of available hospital accommodation, to his friends taking advantage of the law, and to their applying to justices of the peace for his immediate security by a committal to gaol, in the expectation that thence he will be sent to an asylum for proper treatment; neither do we think that magistrates, when thoroughly informed as to particulars, should throw any impediments in the way, fully satisfied as we are that a prompt interference has prevented serious personal injury, and that a procrastination from one day to another has eventuated in the loss of life.

For example, and as a practical illustration, we shall assume a case, be it in a northern or southern district, at Sligo or Clonmel. A cottier farmer or labourer becomes suddenly and violently insane, having a family of three or four young children solely dependent on him for their means of subsistence. He lives fifty miles from the asylum; in the one case, the gaol of Carrick-on-Shannon, in the other, that at Nenagh, lies much closer to his home, some thirty miles nearer; the wife has no one willing or able to take charge of him, neither has she wherewith to convey the lunatic to the asylum, a journey on foot, or in a common country car, of three entire days. She is consequently constrained to apply to the next magistrates for his committal, under the provisions of the Act. The police take charge of him, and he remains in prison till cured, or ceasing to be dangerous, is liberated by one of the committing justices, unless in the interim he may be removed to hospital by warrant of the lord-lieutenant. Thus, in extensive districts, and in such extreme cases, the statute may be regarded at present not only as a necessity, but, when judiciously carried out, a certain protection to life and property.

The treatment of lunatics in prison appears, on the whole, to be very

humane. Their dietary, which is not fixed, is generally left, by visiting boards of superintendence, to the discretion of the medical officers, who are at liberty to order for individual cases whatever they may deem advisable. So far as the limited capabilities of a gaol permit, we have reason to think that, as a class, a considerate attention is, for the most part, bestowed on them. They are placed immediately under the care of one of the warders, assisted, when necessary, by two or more prisoners or convicts, who, it is to be presumed, are selected to the task for their good behaviour and intelligence. With regard to bedding, fuel, clothing, and other creature comforts, we have found them generally well supplied. The food is ample in quantity; but we could desire in some gaols more animal and vegetable nutriment, particularly for those any lengthened time in confinement. As a matter of course, in the absence of all means of classification, recourse is had in violent cases to handcuffs and similar mechanical appliances for coercion; and on some, but rare occasions, the mode even of their application appeared to us much too severe. We are not, however, disposed to attribute this so much to any intentional harshness, as to an ignorance on the part of persons uninstructed on the subject, and who, perhaps, themselves, having suffered violence from the insane, naturally dread their excitement.

The great and irremediable objection to the detention of lunatics in gaols arises from their liability to a continued confinement, in narrow cells and cheerless passages, without a single break to the monotony of their existence, while the yards, in which at best they can take but a scanty exercise, overhung by lofty walls, are drear and gloomy; thus the very residence itself, intended as a place of punishment for criminals, or of safe custody for prisoners, is calculated in many cases to render the disease more fixed and intractable.

There are six establishments not under the care of resident medical men, viz., the Retreat, Armagh; Bloomfield Retreat, county Dublin; Course Lodge, county Armagh; Lysle House, county Dublin; Riversdale Lodge, county Dublin; and St. Vincent's Asylum, county Dublin: these, however, are regularly visited by duly qualified and experienced physicians, in accordance with the 18th section of the Act.

The interior arrangements of many of the private asylums are now most satisfactory, alterations and additions having been made in them, at our suggestion, with the express object of providing suitable accommodation for the inmates. Mechanical restraint is now, we are glad to observe, not employed except in cases of extreme violence, and then only so long as may be necessary for the protection of the patients themselves. So far we have just reason to be content, for, contrasted with what it was some years back, one cannot fail to observe, in the present condition of private asylums, many salutary improvements, both as regards the general well-being and social comforts of the patients, and increased means for carrying into effect a proper system of classification.

The proprietors of Farnham House, Hampstead House, and Hartfield House, have provided distinct and separate establishments for the accommodation of females, an arrangement of which we cannot too highly approve, while St. Vincent's Asylum, Lysle House, Riversdale Lodge, Course Lodge, and Annebrook are exclusively devoted to the reception of female lunatics. The total number of females thus separately accommodated at present is eighty-four; and when the extensions now in progress at St. Vincent's are completed, there will be provision for a much larger number.

To this (the private asylum) branch of our department we pay unceasing attention, and our efforts have been productive of much good. We visit licensed houses very frequently, not alone for the purpose of inspecting the establishments themselves and their domestic arrangements, but of examining into the condition of the patients, and satisfying ourselves that no party shall be improperly or unnecessarily detained, or who is not a fit and proper person for confinement in an asylum.

The total number of lunatics in custody in private lunatic asylums on 31st March, 1861, was 513, namely, 267 males and 246 females. During the nine months, 157 were admitted—70 males and 87 females; making a total under treatment during that period of 670, 337 being males and 333 females; the discharged amounted to 131—57 males and 74 females; a considerable number of them, however, were but transferences from one asylum to another; of these 131, 60 were returned to our office as absolute recoveries—27 males and 33 females; 43 improved—25 males and 18 females; 25 not recovered or incurable—3 males and 22 females; 3 escaped—2 males and 1 female; two were brought back almost immediately after; the third, a colonel in her Majesty's service, we regret to say, committed suicide by drowning himself, and so determined was he to effect his purpose, that he filled his pockets with stones. His body was found in a quarry-pit about a mile from the asylum. On its discovery, one of the inspectors proceeded to the asylum, and made special inquiry into all the circumstances of the case. It appeared that the lunatic had, while at exercise on the ground, eluded the vigilance of the attendants, and although followed, succeeded in escaping pursuit, owing, it is supposed, to having concealed himself amongst the thick hedge-rows in the neighbourhood, and which were in full leaf at the time. A coroner's inquest was held, and a verdict returned in accordance with the facts. This was the only death out of 24, the total mortality, referrible to suicide or accident, that occurred in private asylums during the period intervening between the 1st April and 31st December, 1861.

COPYHOLD COMMISSION.

Twentieth Report of the Copyhold Commissioners to her Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department, pursuant to the Act 4 & 5 Vict. c. 35. s. 3.

DURING the present year there were 786 enfranchisements effected.

Besides these enfranchisements the commissioners received 369 applications, of which 62 are under the voluntary, and 307 under the compulsory, powers of the Acts. The commissioners reported that in the manor of Tiptofts, in Harston, in the county of Cambridge, they suspended the proceedings of a proposed compulsory enfranchisement, where enforcing the enfranchisement, under the peculiar position and circumstances of the present tenant's family, would, in their opinion, have produced such an especial hardship as is provided for by the 15 & 16 Vict. c. 61. They further reported that, in pursuance of the powers vested in them by "The Universities and College Estates Act, 1858," they authorized, during the

year 1861, twenty-one sales, four enfranchisements, fifteen purchases, one exchange, and two applications for raising money by way of mortgage.

The total number of enfranchisements and commutations from 1841 to 1861 was as follows: Clerical, 790; collegiate, 240; lay, 2433: total, 3463.

The consideration for these 3463 enfranchisements was payment in full, 564,120*l.* 6*s.* 11½*d.*; rent-charges, 4542*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.*; land, 1379*a.* 1*r.* 18*p.* The number of enfranchisements increased yearly. In 1841 there was only 1; in 1842, 12; in 1843, 29; in 1844, 39; in 1845, 56; in 1846, 36; in 1847, 52; in 1848, 25; in 1849, 30; in 1850, 37; in 1851, 64; in 1852, 44; in 1853, 58; in 1854, 131; in 1855, 220; in 1856, 231; in 1857, 303; in 1858, 204; in 1859, 371; in 1860, 714; and in 1861, 786. The report was signed by the commissioners, Messrs. G. DARBY, H. C. MILES, and G. RIDLEY.

DUBLIN HOSPITALS.

Sixth Annual Report of the Board of Superintendence of Dublin Hospitals.

THERE are in Dublin nine hospitals which receive grants from Parliament. During the year 1861, to which the report refers, the number of patients admitted in them was as follows:—Westmoreland Lock Hospital, 840; House of Industry hospitals—viz., the Hardwicke, Whitworth, and Richmond, 3345; Steevens' Hospital, 2395; Meath Hospital, 1054; Cork Street Fever Hospital, 1700; Rotunda Lying-in Hospital, 1141; Coombe Lying-in Hospital, 424; St. Mark's Ophthalmic Hospital, 223; Hospital for Incurables, 24.

INCLOSURE COMMISSION.

Eighteenth Annual Report of the Commissioners.

THE number of applications of all kinds since the passing of the Acts has been 3977. The number of cases during 1862 was 321, viz.:—Inclosures in 1862, 49—total, 990; exchanges in 1862, 251—total, 2746; partitions in 1862, 11—total, 121; conversions into regulated pasture in 1862, *nil*—total, 2; division of intermixed lands in 1862, 3—total, 27; in reference to local Acts in 1862, 1—total, 46; definitions of lost boundaries in 1862, 5—total 26; application of money received under Lands Clauses Consolidation or Railway Acts in 1862, 1—total, 14; to apportion fixed rents in 1862, *nil*—total, 5. The average of inclosures confirmed was 424,971 acres; and in progress, 207,109 acres. The average expense of the inclosure proceedings up to the time of the assents to the provisional orders was 15*l.* 14*s.* 9*d.*

THAMES EMBANKMENT.

Copies of all Correspondence between the Treasury, the Office of Works, and the Commissioners of Woods, Forests, and Land Revenues relating to the Thames Embankment and the Works proposed to be carried out under the Thames Embankment Bill; together with Copies of the Plans: And Copies of all Correspondence between the Treasury, the Office of Works, the Commissioners of Woods, Forests, and Land Revenues, and all other Correspondence relating to any Plans for facilitating the Passage of Traffic or opening better Communication between Whitehall and Bridge Street; together with Copies of such Plans. (The Earl of Doncaster.) 24th July, 1862. (226.)

In September, 1861, Mr. Charles Gore made a report to the Treasury on the plans for embanking the Thames within the metropolis, and gave his opinion that so much of the proposed scheme as contemplated a roadway 100 feet in width upon the embankment between Westminster Bridge and Whitehall Stairs is objectionable in several respects.

Firstly. Because it is calculated to be seriously detrimental to the interests of the Crown, its lessees, and tenants, upon the northern bank of the river, by carrying a public roadway upon the river frontage of the Crown property between Richmond Terrace and Whitehall Stairs.

Secondly. Because the commissioners were directed to report as to the measures to be adopted to "provide with the greatest efficiency and economy for the relief of the most crowded streets," and the proposed roadway on the embankment would tend to add to the present concourse of vehicles at a point where, according to the evidence given by Sir Richard Mayne to the commission, the present traffic is dangerous to members of Parliament and others going to the Houses of Parliament.

Thirdly. Because an alternative plan prepared by Mr. Pennethorne will more effectually provide for the public convenience by another line of roadway, which would not only be free from both of the serious objections above alluded to, but would also form a portion of the general improvement of the approaches to the Houses of Parliament that must sooner or later be carried into effect.

Mr. Gore favoured Mr. Pennethorne's plan, which proposed that the public roadway upon the embankment should leave it at Whitehall Stairs, and be carried through some houses belonging to the Crown unto Whitehall, opposite the Horse Guards. It also proposed to render Parliament Street capable of accommodating the traffic that now obstructs it, by removing the two blocks of houses that form the western side of that street, and the eastern side of King Street; and also to improve the access to Victoria Street, by an alteration in the way of laying out the gardens of New Palace Yard.

The plan so prepared by Mr. Pennethorne was based upon the following principles:—

First. That with comparatively few exceptions, the vehicles passing along the embankment from Blackfriars, &c., will not seek to cross over Westminster Bridge into Lambeth, but will turn southwards or westwards, either to the Houses of Parliament, into or through Victoria Street or Birdcage Walk; and consequently that, for the reasons stated below, this plan is more convenient for the public than that recommended by the commissioners.

Secondly. That the erection of new Government offices upon the west side of King Street, and the gradual increase of traffic, especially from Pimlico Railway Station, will render necessary, either sooner or later, the removal of the two blocks of houses in Parliament Street, as shown upon the plan; and that it is therefore advisable to make the removal of those blocks form a part of a general scheme for the improvement of the present approach to the Houses of Parliament and to Victoria Street.

Thirdly. That the adoption of his plan would obviate the necessity of compensating the Crown lessees for the injury caused to their property; and that it would render it worth while for the Crown to defray the cost of forming the portion of the embankment in front of Whitehall Gardens, &c., upon the understanding that the land to be reclaimed should be added to the present gardens, upon the several lessees paying a moderate interest on the outlay during the residue of their respective leases.

Mr. Gore's report was remitted by the Treasury to the Metropolitan Board of Works. On the 20th December, 1861, the First Commissioner of Works wrote to the Treasury that, in the preparation of the Bill, he had assumed that any consequential damage that might occur to the houses erected on this part of the hereditary property of the Crown, was to be the subject of compensation, that the completeness of a great public work, intended for the embellishment of the metropolis, and for the convenience and enjoyment of the public, and defrayed at the cost of the inhabitants of the metropolis, could not rightly be sacrificed to the convenience and preferences of individuals, merely because they hold their leases under the Crown. The case of the lessees in question was heard by the Royal commission, but the commission did not adopt the suggestion made by them. On the 2nd January, 1862, the First Commissioner of Public Works communicated to the Treasury the principal features of the Thames Embankment Bill, which include the following principal features:—

First. The plan recommended last year by the Royal commission is to be executed by a limited number of persons representing the Metropolitan Board of Works.

Secondly. The funds appropriated to the embankment, or arising from the sale of lands and houses acquired in connection with the embankment, are to be kept distinct from the ordinary revenues of the Metropolitan Board of Works.

Thirdly. As the foreshore to be embanked is the property of the Crown and of the Thames Conservancy, it is not to be placed at the uncontrolled discretion of the board appointed to execute the works, and the disposal of it, whether as open ground, public promenade, or terraces and streets, is to be subject to orders from the Treasury. This is intended as a security that the embellishment of the metropolis, the convenience of those going to and from the Houses of Parliament, and the interests of the Crown property, shall not be overlooked.

And on the receipt of this document the Treasury made a minute renouncing any objection, but asserting the right of the lessees to a full compensation. On the 30th January, Mr. Gore wrote to the Treasury, enclosing a memorial of the lessees against the projected works, noticing the fact that the Duke of Buccleuch had recently entered into an agreement with him, in consequence of which the duke had expended a very large sum in the rebuilding of Montague House. Mr. Gore suggested that the bill should be amended so as to reserve absolutely to the Crown the foreshore; to provide that the Crown's right to one-third of the proceeds of the residue of the foreshore now reserved to the Crown shall be valued by two arbitrators, and the insertion of provisions in the bill for the protection of the Crown frontage during the progress or after completion of the works.

On the 26th March, 1862, the First Commissioner of Works submitted to the treasury the principles upon which he proposed to have the clauses framed for dealing with the rights of the Crown and the Crown lessees.

1. With regard to the foreshore abutting on Crown land between Richmond Terrace and the boundary of the Crown property near Scotland Yard, I propose—That the site of the embankment, and roads and footways, shall be vested in the Metropolitan Board of Works. That the land to be reclaimed between the embankment and the existing shore shall be filled up, levelled, and fenced by the Metropolitan Board, and be declared to be part and parcel of the hereditary possessions of the Crown discharged of all claims and demands. That the lessees shall have the option of taking leases from the Crown of the reclaimed land in front of their respective tenements, for terms co-extensive with their present leases. The Crown will thus be preserved from any claim for the maintenance and repair of the embankment and its appendages, and will acquire property of an amount far greater than the amount of any deterioration which could occur from the substitution of a highway on land in the place where a highway by water now exists.

2. With regard to the foreshore in front of Somerset House and of the Board of Control, I propose that the reclaimed land between the embankment and the existing shore having been made by the Metropolitan Board, shall be declared to be part and parcel of the sites of Somerset House and the Board of Control respectively, so as to avoid the difficult questions that might be raised as to the legal ownership of those premises.

3. With regard to the foreshore under the charge of the Thames Con-

servancy Board, I propose that the embankment and roads be vested in the Metropolitan Board, and that the value of the rights of the Crown to one-third of the proceeds of the foreshore between the embankment and the existing shore be ascertained by arbitration and paid to the Crown.

4. With reference to the claims of the Duchy of Lancaster, I am in communication with the Council, but have not yet received the clauses which they will suggest.

These proposals were considered by the Treasury, and the matter was arranged between the solicitors of all the parties at issue.

PUBLIC GENERAL STATUTES,

25° & 26° VICTORIÆ, 1862.

SERIES H.—HEALTH, ENCLOSURES, &c.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

LUNACY.

CAP. LXXXVI.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to Commissions of Lunacy, and the proceedings under the same, and to provide more effectually for the visiting of Lunatics, and for other Purposes.* (7th August 1862.)

The inquiry to be made under every order for inquiry in commissions of lunacy to be confined to the question, whether or not, the person who is the subject of the inquiry, is at the time of unsound mind, and incapable of managing himself or his affairs. All inquiries before a jury to be made by means of an issue in one of the superior courts. The Lord Chancellor to have power, when the lunatic does not oppose the application, and his property does not exceed 1000*l.* in value, or 50*l.* per annum, to apply it for his benefit. All lunatics to be visited four times a year. Visitors also to visit the alleged lunatics, and to make a report to the Lord Chancellor.

MEDICAL EDUCATION.

CAP. XCI.—*An Act to incorporate the General Council of Medical Education and Registration of the United Kingdom, and for other Purposes.* (7th August, 1862.)

ENGLAND.

NETLEY HOSPITAL.

CAP. XVI.—*An Act for extinguishing certain Rights of Way through the Netley Hospital Estate in the Parish of Hoand, in the County of Southampton.*

INCLOSURE.

CAP. XLVII.—*An Act to authorize the Inclosure of certain Lands in pursuance of a Report of the Inclosure Commissioners for England and Wales.* (29th July, 1862.)

CAP. XCIV.—*An Act to authorize the Inclosure of certain Lands in pursuance of a Special Report of the Inclosure Commissioners.* (7th August 1862.)

BURIAL BOARDS.

CAP. C.—*An Act to authorize Improvement Commissioners acting as Burial Boards to mortgage certain Rates for the purpose of the Burial Acts.* (7th August, 1862.)

LUNACY.

CAP. CXI.—*An Act to amend the Law relating to Lunatics.* (7th August, 1862.)

The Act provides for the establishment of county asylums, the plans to be approved by the quarter sessions. When a contract has been made for the reception of lunatics into any asylum, hospital, &c., the vestries of the county or borough may contribute a sum for the purpose not exceeding one-fourth of the weekly charge. Accommodation may be provided in such hospitals for the burial of such lunatics. Licensed houses to be inspected. No lunatic to be detained in a workhouse beyond fourteen days. Every licensed house may be visited at any time.

SCOTLAND.

LUNACY.

CAP. LIV.—*An Act to make further Provision respecting Lunacy in Scotland.* (29th July, 1862.)

The board may license lunatic wards of poor-houses, and may grant special licences for reception in houses of not more than four lunatics and to charitable institutions to receive imbecile children without fee. Lunatics to be admitted by order of the sheriff, and on medical certificate. The sheriff may commit dangerous lunatics. Insane prisoners may, on expiry of the sentence, be detained in the general prison.

IRELAND.

COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS.

CAP. XV.—*An Act to define the powers of the President and Fellows of the King and Queen's College of Physicians in Ireland, with respect to the Election of its Fellows.* (16th May, 1862.)

I N D E X.

.* Throughout the work the paging of the Series is at the head, and the paging of the Volume at the bottom.

	SERIES Page	VOLUME Page
A.		
SERIES A.—Army Expenditure for the Year ended 30th June, 1862	296	120
30th September, 1862	297	121
31st December, 1862.....	298	122
Annuities, Return of	338	290
Annuities and Pensions paid out of the Consolidated Fund	343	319
„ B.—African Slave Trade, Statute on	436	452
Army Effectives, Returns of	311	252
Artillery Ranges, Statute on.....	435	451
„ F.—Antigua, Area, Population, Finance, Trade of	502	306
B.		
„ A.—Belgium, Value of British Manufactures exported to, in 1862	294	118
Treaty on Joint-Stock Companies, with	398	346
of Commerce and Navigation, with	399	347
Bleachfield, Statute on	417	453
„ C.—Bills which have not passed into Law	464	128
Assent to Use of Prayer-Book	464	128
Acts of Uniformity, Amendment	466	130
Bishops in Heathen Countries	467	131
Courts of the Church of Scotland	468	132
Oaths of Allegiance and Supremacy	470	134
Church-rates Voluntary Commutation.....	471	135
Church-rates Commutation.....	472	136
Qualifications for Offices, Abolition	475	139
Ecclesiastical Dilapidations	476	140
„ Q.—Bahamas, Area, Finance, Shipping, and Trade of	500	304
Barbadoes „ „	504	308
Bermuda „ „	499	303
British Guiana „ „	505	309
British Columbia „ „	499	303
Papers on the Affairs of	485	197
C.		
„ A.—China, Trade and Manufacture of	320	272
Civil Service, Expenditure for the Year ended 30th June, 1862	296	120
30th Sept., 1862	297	121
31st Dec., 1862.....	298	122
Coal Mines, Statute on	430	466
Coffee, Quantity exported of in 1862	287	111
Coffee, Quantity imported of in 1862	286	116
Coinage, Return of	336	288
Confirmation of Sales, Statute on.....	431	467

INDEX.

[516]

INDEX.

	SERIES Page	VOLUME Page
G.		
SERIES A. —Gold and Silver, Value of, imported in the Year 1862	293	117
Greenland, Trade and Manufactures of	303	255
Gold Coinage, Return of Amount rejected	335	287
„ F. —Grenada, Area, Population, Trade, and Shipping of	504	308
Gold Coast „ „ „	509	313
Gambia „ „ „	510	314
Gibraltar „ „ „	510	314
Gold Fields, Victoria, Despatch on	511	315
„ C. —Geological Museum, Report on	489	369
H.		
„ A. —Holland, Value of British Manufacture exported to, in 1862	294	118
Hans Towns	294	118
„ B. —Holstein, Lauenburg, „ and Schleswig, „ Correspondence respecting the Affairs of	314	58
Hesse, Grand Duke of, Accession to the International Copyright Convention	387	247
„ D. —Highways, Statute on	352	476
Highlands, Roads and Bridges, Statute on	352	476
„ F. —Honduras, Area, Population, Trade, and Shipping of	500	304
Hong Kong „ „ „ „	507	311
I.		
„ A. —India, Value of British Manufactures exported to, in 1862	294	118
Imports, Value of, in each Month in 1862	292	116
Income and Expenditure of the United Kingdom, for the Year ended, 30th September, 1862	297	121
31st December, 1862	298	122
30th June, 1862	296	120
Iceland, Trade and Manufacture of	301	253
Imports of the United Kingdom, Official Value of	350	326
„ B. —Italy, Correspondence respecting Southern	362	106
International Copyright, Accession by the Grand Duke of Hesse to	387	247
Iron and Wooden Ships, Comparative Merits of	406	354
Italy, Papers relating to Brigandage in	432	448
„ F. —India, Copy of Memorandum on Indian Finance	478	160
Letter on Oude Claims	495	207
Area and Population of	497	301
Finance	497	301
Shipping	497	301
Railways	497	301
Commerce	497	301
Stock	515	507
Ionian Islands, Area, Finance, Trade, and Shipping of	510	314
„ H. —Inclosure Commission, Report of	176	300
J.		
„ F. —Jamaica, Area, Population, Trade, and Shipping of	501	305
Debt, Correspondence on	513	505
Statute on	516	508
L.		
„ A. —Linen Manufacture and Yarn, Quantity and Value exported of in 1862	290	116
„ F. —Labuan, Area, Population, Finance and Trade of	508	312
„ C. —Local Government Act, Report on	376	176
„ H. —Lunatic Asylums (Ireland), Report on	169	293
Lunacy, Statute on	180	484

INDEX.

	SERIES Page	VOLUME Page
M.		
SERIES A.—Machinery, Quantity and Value exported of in 1862	290	114
Metals	290	114
Merchandize Trade Marks, Statute on	426	462
" B.—Mutiny, Statute on	435	451
" D.—Merchant Shipping, Statute on	348	472
" E.—Military Prisons, Report on	325	417
" F.—Montserrat, Area, Population, Finance, Trade of	502	306
Mauritius " " " "	508	312
Malta " " " "	510	314
" G.—Marriages, Births, and Deaths (England), Table of	480	360
N.		
" A.—National Debt, Interest of for the Year ended June 30, 1862	296	120
Sept. 30, 1862	297	121
Dec. 31, 1862	298	122
National Debt, Amount of	349	325
Navy Expenditure, Amount of for the Year ended June 30, 1862	296	120
Sept. 30, 1862	297	121
Dec. 31, 1862	298	122
" B.—Naval and Victualling Stores, Statute on	435	451
" F.—New Zealand, Papers on Disturbances in	461	145
New Brunswick, Area, Finance, Shipping and Trade of	498	302
Newfoundland " " " "	499	303
Nevis " " " "	502	306
New South Wales " " " "	505	309
New Zealand " " " "	507	311
Natal " " " "	509	313
O.		
" C.—Ordnance Surveys, Report of Progress of	373	193
P.		
" A.—Patent Law, Report of Commissioners on	365	373
Private Estate of the Crown, Statute on	424	460
Public Works, Statute on	424	460
Post-Office Revenue for the Year ended 30th June, 1862	296	120
30th September, 1862	297	121
31st December, 1862	298	122
Property-Tax, for the Year ended 30th June, 1862	296	120
30th September, 1862	297	121
31st December, 1862	298	122
Prussia, Population, Trade, and Manufactures of	309	261
Constitution of	310	262
Schools and Universities of	312	264
Fortresses of	314	266
Pensions for Naval and Military Services	343	319
Civil Services	344	320
" B.—Poland, Correspondence with Talleyrand on	389	249
" D.—Piers and Harbours, Statute on	351	475
" E.—Police and Improvement, Statute on	332	484
Peace Preservation (Ireland), Statute on	332	484
" F.—Prince Edward's Island, Area, Finance, Shipping, and Trade of	493	302
" Q.—Public Works (Ireland), Report of Board of	349	169
Poor Law (Ireland), Annual Report of	377	357
Public Houses (Scotland), Statute on	390	502
Petroleum, Statute on	387	499
Parliamentary Proceedings, Report of Committee on	381	493
Q.		
" F.—Queensland, Area, Population, Finance, and Trade of	507	311

INDEX.

	SERIES Page	VOLUME Page
R.		
SERIES A.—Russia, Sugar Duties in	264	20
Value of Exports of British Manufactures to, in 1862	294	118
Trade and Manufacture of	315	267
Trade of, with Central Asia	315	267
B.—Rifle Volunteers' Grounds, Statute on	435	451
Royal Marine Forces, Statute on	435	451
D.—Railway Companies, Return of	329	209
Railways, Number of Miles open of, in 1861	329	209
Number of Passengers in	329	209
Traffic in the Year 1861	329	209
Total Capital raised for	329	209
Railway Bill (East Gloucestershire), Report on	344	224
Effect of, on Royal Observatories	345	469
Red Sea and India Telegraph, Statute on	348	472
S.		
A.—Salaries and Allowances of Ambassadors	345	321
Judges	347	323
Salmon Fisheries, Annual Report of Commissioners of	368	376
Sardinian Loan, Amount of	333	290
Shipping belonging to the British Empire	350	326
Silk Manufacture, Quantity and Value exported of	291	115
Quantity imported of, in 1862	285	109
Spain, Value of British Manufacture exported to, in 1862	294	118
Spirits, Amount of Customs Duties from, in 1862	286	110
Stamp Duties, Revenue for the Year ended 30th June, 1862	296	120
30th September, 1862	297	121
31st December, 1862	298	122
Sugar, Quantity imported of, in 1862	286	110
Value of Imports of,	288	112
Amount of Custom Duties from, in 1862	288	112
Quantity consumed of, 1801-1861	278	34
Average Rate of Duty on,	278	34
Price of, in Bond,	278	34
Net Revenue from,	278	34
Observations on the Consumption of	280	36
Quantity of, used in Brewing Beer and Distilling Spirits	284	40
Duties, Report of Committee on	258	14
History of	261	17
French Duties on	263	19
Effect of Refining in Bond, on	265	21
Memorandum on the Scale of	268	24
Report of West India Chamber of Agriculture on	270	26
B.—Slave Trade, Correspondence with British Commissioners on	296	44
British Ministers and Agents of Foreign Countries	305	49
Abolition by the Confederate States of America	311	55
Syria, Correspondence on the Affairs of	365	225
Salvador, Treaty with the Republic of	393	341
Ships, Iron and Wood, Comparative Merits of	406	354
Sandhurst Vesting, Statute on	435	451
Surrender of Criminals, Statute on	436	452
C.—Science and Art, Report of Department of	485	365
South Kensington Museum, Report on	487	367
Sir John Soane's Museum, Statute on	500	492
D.—Shipping Vessels employed in the Foreign Trade in 1862	342	222
Tonnage entered and cleared in each Month in 1862	343	223
E.—Summary Procedure, Statute on	492	484
Jurisdiction, Statute on	492	484
F.—St. Christopher, Area, Population, Finance, and Trade of	501	305
St. Lucia,	503	307
St. Vincent	503	307
South Australia	506	310
St. Helena	509	313
Sierra Leone	509	313

INDEX.

	SERIES Page	VOLUME Page
T.		
SERIES A.—Trade Marks Bill, Report of Committee on	245	1
Definition of	245	1
Existing Law on	246	2
German Frauds of	246	2
Of Quantity	249	5
Memorandum of Cases on	257	13
Trade of the United Kingdom for the Year 1862	285	109
Tea, Quantity Imported of, in 1862	286	110
Value of Imports of	287	111
Quantity Exported of	288	112
Amount of Customs Duties from, in 1862	288	112
Tobacco,	288	112
Transfer of Land, Statute on	430	466
Stock Annuities, Statute on	432	468
Treasure-trove, Copies of Memorials on	299	123
B.—Teleki, Count, Papers on the Extradition of	391	249
Treaty with the Republic of Salvador	393	341
Belgium on Joint Stock Companies	398	346
Commerce and Navigation	399	347
C.—Tithe Commission, Report of	493	485
D.—Turnpike Trusts, Statute on	352	476
Turnpike Acts, Statute on	352	476
F.—Turks Island, Population, Revenue, Shipping, and Trade of	500	304
Tobago	504	308
Trinidad	504	308
Tasmania	507	311
G.—Thames Embankment Commission, Report of	361	181
Statute on	389	501
U.		
A.—United States, Scale of Sugar Duties in	264	20
United Kingdom, Consumption of Sugar in	278	34
United States, Trade and Manufacture of	333	285
B.—United States, Papers relating to the Foreign Affairs of	409	425
E.—Unlawful Oaths, Statute on	332	484
Q.—Universities, Scotland, Statute on	500	492
V.		
F.—Virgin Islands, Area, Population, Finance, Trade of	501	305
Victoria Islands, Area, Population, Finance, Trade of	506	310
Victoria, Despatch on the Gold Fields of	511	315
W.		
A.—Wool, Quantity imported of in 1862	285	109
Wines, Quantity imported of in 1862	286	110
Wines, Value of Imports of	287	111
Wool, Value of Imports of	287	111
D.—Wreck, Amount of unclaimed received by the Board of Trade	341	221
E.—Whipping, Statute on	330	484
F.—Western Australia, Area, Population, Trade, &c., of	506	310
Q.—Weights and Measures, Statute on	392	503

13

25

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